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ART. I. *Organic Remains of a former World.* An Examination of the mineralized Remains of the Vegetables and Animals of the Antediluvian World; generally termed Extraneous Fossils. By James Parkinson, Hoxton. Vol. I. containing the Vegetable Kingdom. 4to. pp. 472. 2l. 2s. Boards. Robson, Symonds, &c. 1804.

SUCH is the imposing title of a work which we opened with considerable eagerness, though not without some presentiment of deluded expectation. The history of our globe and its productions, even in the present state of human knowlege, is encompassed with difficulty and obscurity; and he must be no timid conjecturer, who shall pretend to assign the number or the effects of its physical revolutions. Men of a speculative turn of mind are, perhaps, never more apt to theorize, than on subjects which lie beyond the sphere of their intelligence. Although Mr. Parkinson professes to be no dogmatist, and usually proposes his sentiments with becoming modesty, we feel constrained to remark that most of his reasonings are hypothetical, and frequently as gratuitous and untenable as the arguments which he labours to overthrow. As the deluge has so amply contributed to *swell* his quarto, he might, in the first instance, have satisfied us with regard to the universality of this awful phænomenon,—a point concerning which even learned theologians are not agreed; and, secondly, when he had succeeded in establishing the orthodox doctrine, he should have taken some pains to convince us that his principal inferences are fairly deducible from the premises. After having conceded the historical fact, that the globe was literally immersed in the waters of the flood during 150 days, we are still unable to reconcile geological appearances to such an event. The partial dislocations of regular strata on the one hand, and the apparently undisturbed deposition of delicate shells and plants on the other, not to mention many more puzzling circumstances, by no means accord with the effects which we should naturally attribute to the general agency of

aqueous devastation. As a collector of facts, of a particular and interesting description, Mr. Parkinson is intitled to the gratitude of the naturalist: but, as a theorist, we conceive that he imparts no new and steady light to guide us in the path of geological investigation.

If we approve of the epistolary form of this work, we must object to the dulness and inelegance of the execution. By conveying didactic information in a series of letters, the text is unavoidably extended: but the reliefs, of which this mode of writing is susceptible, more than counterbalance the inconvenience of some additional pages. In the course of a friendly correspondence on an abstract or scientific subject, the severity of attention may be, from time to time, agreeably beguiled by little episodical incidents; and illustrations may be presented in popular and familiar language. As this species of composition, however, requires talents and management which few possess, it too often degenerates into tame and diffuse dissertation; to stated portions of which, the title *letter* is prefixed, while that of *section* or *chapter* would have been more appropriate. In the present instance, a journey in some of the counties of England is supposed to suggest the materials of writing: but the parties and their journey are soon forgotten, or, as least, very faintly remembered; and the sequel proceeds in a style more perspicuous than alluring, exhibiting the form, but destitute of the grace and enlivening spirit of literary correspondence. Mr. Parkinson has, indeed, borrowed largely from the stores of his predecessors; and his style sometimes receives a tincture from that of the author whom he happens to quote without the formality of inverted commas. On other occasions, it is heavy or incorrect. We are really disgusted with the vulgar substitution of *lay* for *lie;* and we feel little inclined to tolerate such expressions as '*sufficient of structure,*' '*phosphorescence light,*' '*have so much pyrites enter into their composition,*' '*are daily being made,*' '*the number and variety is so immense,*' '*the formation of peat mosses are,*' '*hypochondriacism,*' '*explorement,*' '*oxygenizement,*' &c. &c. Of incomplete, clumsy, and disjointed sentences, the following among others may be noted:

'Considering that, as similar difficulties must occur to others, a publication would be acceptable, which should comprize, in the general history of these bodies, the more important observations, and opinions, of preceding writers, whether foreign or domestic, he was therefore disposed to take on himself the task of accomplishing, to the best of his abilities, a work of that description.'

'Agricola, whose actual researches were such as must have furnished him with numerous opportunities of determining, that this astonishing change of wood into stone did actually take place; but, at the

same time, being influenced by the predominant opinion of that period, that nature amused herself by modelling, in stone, imitations of the forms of organic bodies, he thus endeavours to furnish a mode of distinguishing in which of these classes, the stony substances bearing a vegetable form, are to be arranged.'

'From the intermixture and crystallization of these proceeded those siliceous and spathous veins *which* alternate with and intersect the various strata *which* form that part of the earth *which* has been subjected to our examination.'

Having premised these strictures on the general nature and composition of the work, we shall now direct our attention more particularly to its contents; and this we do with the greater willingness, because they really manifest much honest diligence on a subject which has been hitherto very imperfectly explored.

The oracular letter-writer, to whom the travellers apply for information when they accidentally encounter 'a snake stone,' a 'giant's bone,' or a 'fairy's night cap,' acquaints them that, in the prosecution of his explanations, 'the fossil in its present state will be carefully described, and, whenever it can be done, the situation in which it is found will be pointed out; its primitive mode of existence, and the various properties which, by analogy, may be supposed to have characterized it in its living state, will be inquired into; and the several changes which it has undergone, both in its composition and its structure, will be carefully examined.' This is a fair and an ample promise: but, when we reflect on the unavoidable obscurity in which the subject is involved, we may, without breach of charity, venture to predict that it will be very partially performed. 'So very remote is the period to which our minds are to revert: so loose and so light, are the grounds on which our conjectures are to be built; and so great is the temptation to imagination, to take the place of judgment, that among the several systems of which I shall have occasion to make mention, you, not only, will hardly find one on which you can venture to depend; but you will discover, that the majority, so far from possessing even probability, rather resemble the fictions of poets, than the reasonings of philosophers.'—How often are we tempted to whisper to an author, *de te fabula narratur!*

The slight notices which have been handed down to us, from antiquity, concerning the remains of organized bodies, are mentioned in the third letter. They are chiefly taken from Herodotus, Theophrastus, Eratosthenes, Ovid, Pliny, Strabo, &c. and however unsatisfactory they may appear in point of explanation, they suffice to attest that extraneous fossils had early attracted the attention of the learned and observing part of mankind.

On the revival of letters, the would-be philosophers tamely acquiesced in the expressions *vis formativa*, *vis plastica*, &c. and in the doctrine of equivocal generation, as adequate solutions of the existence of such organic remains. Fracastorius, in the beginning of the 16th century, appears to have been the first who viewed the subject with the attention of an unprejudiced observer. After having examined the opinions of his predecessors, he inclines to that which supposes that the districts in which marine productions abound were once covered by the sea; which, gradually receding from them, and encroaching on other lands, resigns its former bed to the cultivation and possession of man. Agricola, Gesner, and Bauhin, added each somewhat to the stock of preceding observations. The *Metallotheca Vaticana*, a curious treatise composed by their contemporary, Michael Mercatus, was not published till the year 1717; when it was edited, with valuable notes and figures, by the ingenious Lancisius, physician to the pope.

As Mr. Parkinson has enumerated several of the oryctographic writers, who have flourished since the days of Pliny to the present times, we wish that he had extended his catalogue, and that he had enriched it by biographical and critical notices; the more so, because many of his readers will reckon his performance deficient in sprightliness and variety. Since Mr. P. notices Cuvier's ingenious papers on various fossil remains, we are rather surprized that he never mentions the interesting and splendid work of Faujas de St. Fond, on St. Peter's-hill, near Maestricht; of which we gave an account in the Appendix to our 41st volume, N. S.

Rejecting the exploded notions concerning the origin of organized remains, as well as several of the terms by which they have been imperfectly denoted, Mr. Parkinson intimates that, with the view of avoiding the coinage of a new phraseology, he simply divides all fossil substances into *primary* and *secondary*. Under the first he includes unorganized minerals, as the metals, granites, &c.; and under the second, those which bear indubitable marks of having existed in an organized state. These last, which constitute the subject of the present work, are either of vegetable or of animal origin. In the volume before us, the author treats only of the first class; reserving the animal fossils for the materials of another quarto. The adjustment of these terms, which do not appear to us to merit very nice illustration, occupies a long letter, from which we are at last absolved by the following paragraph:

'Should our old friend Wilton complain of this letter being too dry and unentertaining, remind him, that unless our terms are defined

ed, there never can be a hope of our obtaining a good understanding. Promise him, that our pursuits shall yield him a large stock of entertainment, with a full share of the marvellous. Assure him that he shall hear

——————————Of antres vast, and deserts idle,
Rough quarries, rocks, and hills, whose heads touch heaven.
Shakspeare.

Tell him, I hope his faith will be comprehensive enough to enable him to receive, with full credit, the accounts delivered by Baptista Fulgosus, Ludovicus Moscardus, and Theodorus Moretus, that a whole ship, with its anchors, broken masts, and forty mariners, with their merchandize, were found, in the year 1460, in a mine fifty fathom deep, in the neighbourhood of Berne in Switzerland. Relate to him, that Valchius, in his Commentary on the *Klein Baur*, tells us of a truly curious fossil man, found at Maria Kirch, near Strasburgh, by a miner, who, breaking open the hollow of a rock, was astonished at beholding the figure of an armed man, standing upright, now composed of a mass of silver, of five hundred pounds weight. If his interest and astonishment be not hereby sufficiently excited, tell him, we have more tales of wonder in store; of flocks of cattle, of large companies of men, and of even whole cities, with their inhabitants, being converted to stone. I could supply him, from a comparatively modern author, with an account of a troop of Spanish horsemen, who thus underwent the process of petrifaction; and with a very seriously attested relation of a petrified child, which was shewn at Paris, and which was, occasionally, used by its possessor as a whet-stone!'

A slight sketch of the earth's surface and stratification, and an accidental notice of some fossil wood, form the subject of the fifth and sixth letters. The seventh commences with a formal division of vegetable fossils into Trees, Plants, Roots, Stalks, Leaves, Fruits, and Seed-vessels. This distinction, it is obvious, is neither accurate nor necessary. Indeed, the author treats it with no great respect, by far the greater portion of the volume being occupied with the first part of the division, and the last appearing very problematical even to himself.

In the copious list of places in which subterraneous trees have been pointed out by antient and modern writers, Hatfield-Chace, and Sutton in Lincolnshire, are particularly distinguished, in consequence of the striking observations of M. de la Pryme and Dr. Corrêa de Serra, which are inserted in the Philosophical Transactions. It is to be wished, however, that the author had excluded from his antediluvian relics the contents of peat-bogs and morasses, or had proved their pretensions to such very high antiquity.

Letters 8th, 9th, and 10th, which treat of the principles of vegetable economy, of the resolution of plants into mould, and of some well-known facts relative to the history of peat,

appear to us somewhat irrelevant to the professed object of Mr. Parkinson's inquiries.

We are next presented with various instances of fossil wood; among which the *surturbrand* of Iceland and the *Bovey coal* are especially distinguished. The various modifications of bitumen are then rather tediously discussed, under the popular designations of *Naphtha*, *Petroleum*, *Amber*, &c. In this part of the work, Mr. P. has quoted a curious account of the Tar Lake of Trinidad, as given by Mr. Anderson in a former volume of the Philosophical Transactions. See M. Rev. Vol. lxxxi. p. 524.

The letters on coal are valuable, but chiefly on account of the variety of facts which they contain; and these facts are mostly borrowed from Williams's Mineral Kingdom. The Whitehaven collieries, though affording room for very interesting observations, are unaccountably dispatched in a few sentences.—The mass of preliminary and extraneous matters, through which we have hitherto waded, is accumulated with little discrimination from a great variety of sources; and the information thus afforded would certainly have appeared to greater advantage, had it been more methodically reduced, and submitted to the process of judicious condensation.

In the 18th letter, the author begins to unfold his wonder-working hypothesis of *bituminous fermentation*—'*A fermentation peculiar to vegetable matter placed in such situations, as not only exclude the external air, and secure the presence of moisture, but prevent the escape of the more volatile principles; and which terminates in the formation of those substances termed bitumens.*'—With all due attention and impartiality, we have endeavoured to follow the mazy explanation of a doctrine which forms a leading feature in Mr. Parkinson's subsequent pages, but which, like the conjectural foundations of other systems, remains to be proved. As he attributes the formation of peat to his favourite process, he deems it incumbent on him to review and to confute the sentiments of preceding writers on this subject; and thus we are still led away from the consideration of antediluvian remains, and decoyed into quagmires by the *ignis fatuus* of bituminous fermentation. When canvassing the opinions of others, the author very properly objects to the idea of peat having existed in its present state from the creation of the world; since it is composed of substances which have evidently borne another form, and as the progress of its conversion may even be traced at the present day. The same arguments, however, are sufficient to convince us that peat is not necessarily of antediluvian origin, that the morasses peculiar to some northern countries are not the result of the deluge, and that a large

large portion of the present volume has little or no reference to its ostensible title.

On the puzzling subject of the formation of amber, we are presented with most of the common opinions. The author's own ideas agree with those of the ingenious Dalechamp in his Annotations on Pliny; namely, that it is a bituminous substance, which has issued, in a fluid state, from clefts of the earth, in the neighbourhood of bituminous strata; and which has occasionally enveloped parts of insects, and other foreign bodies:

'If amber were gum or resin which has undergone the change of bituminization, the matters which it contains should certainly also have suffered a similar change. In the few pieces in my own possession, as well as in all others which I have seen, except in one instance, which I shall presently notice, the insects appear not to have suffered the least change, even in their colours, which surely must have taken place, had they been macerating in the softened mass which contains them, during the change it has undergone; although by the difference of their nature they might be entirely exempt from the other effects of the bituminizating process.

'In one specimen, which I possess, containing vegetable matters, the little fragments of moss, and the other particles which are so small as not to furnish the means of judging to what plants, or even to what parts of plants, they belong, do not appear to have suffered the least change, nor to have made the least approach to transparency, excepting one or two pieces, in which it may be readily accounted for, by their extreme thinness and natural proneness to pellucidness, they appearing, when examined by the aid of a lens, very much to resemble in their structure a piece of straw. Not having suffered that change, which this hypothesis supposes the containing mass to have undergone, it seems fair to conclude, that these matters must have been introduced after this particular process had been accomplished in the amber itself, and are therefore preserved, like the insects, in the same state as when first entombed.

'Let us not refuse instruction whenever it is offered to us, and especially when, by duly attending to it, we may escape the suspended lash, necessarily held in readiness to check the prompt and presumptive theorist. The specimen of amber to which I have alluded, besides substances decidedly vegetable, and others too equivocal to determine whether they are parts of vegetables or of insects, contains two flies. One of these appears to be in as perfect a state of preservation as when living; the legs being collected nearly in a point, and stretched to their length, as though the flowing bitumen had secured the imprisonment of the little captive, during its active exertions to raise himself from the treacherous surface. The other, on the contrary, appears to have lost its natural colours, and possesses very nearly the transparency, which is very considerable, of the amber itself; as if it had undergone a similar change with the substance which contains it. If it had been a leaf instead of a fly, what would have become of our proposed hypothesis?—But might it not have been only the thin and

wasted remains of a dead fly, the transparency of which has been increased by its becoming filled by the bright and clear bitumen?

'Having hazarded the conjecture that amber has existed, as a bitumen in a fluid state, and that the foreign substances it contains were introduced in it whilst it was in that state, it may be expected that some instances should be adduced of its having been found in an intermediate state between that of fluidity and that in which it is supposed constantly to exist.

'But it must be considered that the characteristic physical properperties of amber, such as yielding a peculiar odour, and becoming attractive by friction, depend on its indurated state, and must therefore be sought for in vain, in an inferior state of inspissation. To ascertain, with precision, therefore, from what species of liquid bitumen it is derived, may be impossible; since we are reduced, whilst seeking for the analogous fluid bitumen, to trace it by the aid only of such physical properties as colour, degree of transparency, &c. which are common to both states. By these marks, perhaps, if the substances had been examined with a view to that inquiry, some analogy might have been discovered between amber and those bituminous masses found by Stelluto, and those said to resemble mastich and frankincense, which are described by Dr. Woodward and Mons. Fontaine, and which were found even incorporated with fossil wood, with which substance, we have already seen, amber is found generally associated. Were such specimens again to be found, it would be, certainly, highly desirable to ascertain whether, by continued exposure to a slightly increased degree of temperature, or by long keeping, it would acquire the hardness and other properties of amber.

'A specimen of bitumen from Castleton, in Derbyshire, which I possess through the kindness of Mr. Mawes, shews that bitumen, in a soft state, may possess the colour as well as the transparency of amber. It exists in a piece of lime-stone, to which it adheres very closely. Its transparency is almost that of the clearest amber, and the colour, which is most generally diffused through it, is of a deepish yellow, just such as would be conceived from the term amber-yellow, being tinged also in different parts with a brownish red. Its degree of softness is such, that it yields to the slightest pressure, recovering itself, however, on the removal of the pressure, with such a degree of elasticity, as undoubtedly authorizes the placing it among the elastic bitumens.

'The elastic bitumens, as we learn by the observations of Mr. Hatchett, may, by being melted, be deprived of their elasticity, and thus might the specimen here alluded to be reduced to the more common state of bitumens; and probably, by a well managed inspissation, might be made to assume a solid form, without its transparency or colour being at all thereby impaired. In this state, it would undoubtedly become attractive by friction; which property, taken in conjunction with its colour and transparency, would necessarily render its resemblance to amber very close.

'By what has been here said, I do not however, by any means, intend to imply that such a substance would be actually amber; since, perhaps, the formation of amber may depend on peculiar circumstances

stances attendant on its inspissation; and most particularly on some peculiar modification of the oxygen contained in the bitumen from which it may proceed.'

The views of several celebrated naturalists, concerning the origin of coal, are shortly considered in the twenty-third letter. In the twenty-fourth, Mr. Parkinson thus proposes his own theory:

'The opinion, which the strictest examination of every circumstance seems best to warrant the adoption of, appears to be, that coal is a product of the vegetable matter, which has been buried at several distant periods, but chiefly in consequence of an universal deluge; and which, after having been reduced to a fluid state by the bituminous fermentation, has suffered a certain modification of that inflammability, which bitumens in general possess, by the oxygenizement of its carbon, and by an intimate and peculiar intermixture with various earthy and metallic salts.'

Notwithstanding the laboured and ingenious developement of this hypothesis, we are not satisfied that it is consistently stated in different passages; and much less that it accounts for some of the principal appearances which accompany coal strata, as that of their local affections, their depth and regularity, their occasional contiguity to masses of trap formation, &c. Coal is a substance which is by no means so generally diffused over the globe as it would have been, if its alleged rudiments, the antediluvian forests, had been as universally extended as the theory presupposes. We could offer other remarks in opposition to the reasoning which Mr. Parkinson adopts with so much earnestness: but the physical problem which it involves still strikes us as beyond the competency of the human faculties, and as by no means decidedly connected with the state of our planet, previously to an universal deluge, if any such ever occurred. Yet from such a calamity, the benevolent and pious mind of the author educes good; and he would even insinuate, what few theologians will be inclined to concede, that the formation of pit-coal was one of the purposes which Providence had in view in ordaining the flood. The sable race at Newcastle on the Tyne were not, perhaps, aware that their vocation was connected with such high and important destinies.

The twenty-seventh letter treats of incombustible coal, or the carbonic principle, as it occurs in a native state. This subject is curious and interesting: but it receives no additional illustration from the pen of Mr. Parkinson; who, with the volcanists, ascribes its properties to the expulsion of the bituminous principle by subterraneous fire. In confirmation of this opinion, instances are quoted to prove the spontaneous combustion of coal; yet we are not convinced that these conflagrations

grations produce the substance known by the names *mineral coal*, *coal-blende*, *blind coal*, &c. In the cases which we have had an opportunity of examining, not a particle of this substance has been found; for either the bitumen was but partially expelled, or the progress of the flames was marked by a calcined argillaceous residuum.

On the subject of pyrites, we find some ingenious argumentation directed against Dr. Hutton and Professor Playfair; who boldly maintain that the aqueous formation of metallic sulphurets is a physical impossibility. The present author contends that the violet tarnish of polished silver, which M. Proust found to be a sulphuret of that metal, and the darkening of the common sympathetic inks by sulphurated hydrogen, are instances of the union of metal and sulphur in the moist way. As in the laboratory of the chemist, metals held in solution are precipitated by an addition of sulphurated hydrogen, and combined with the sulphur, similar effects may be allowed to take place in subterranean situations.

'The action of a double affinity is exerted. The dissolved and oxydated metal, as well as the sulphuretted hydrogen, suffers decomposition. The sulphuretted hydrogen being separated into its two constituent principles, hydrogen and sulphur, the former unites with the oxygen, which had oxydated the metal and had contributed to its solution, abstracts it from the metal, and with it forms water; whilst the latter principle, the sulphur, deserted by the hydrogen, combines with the metal, thus nearly freed of its oxygen, and reduced, and forms with it a sulphuret, which is precipitated.'—

'Hence it appears probable, at least, that the formation of the native sulphurets may take place, independent of the action of fire: and M. Proust, and our celebrated countryman, Mr. Davy, are of opinion, that the native sulphurets are actually formed, in consequence of a similar decomposition of different solutions of metals, by their combination with hydrosulphurets. It must, however, be remarked, that some of the metals are not thus precipitated by the addition of sulphuretted hydrogen alone; since when the metals are reduced to their *minimum* of oxygen, in consequence of its subtraction by the hydrogen, they retain the last portion of it with a considerable degree of power, and are thereby prevented from entering into union with sulphur. The addition, however, of an earth, an alkali, or the carbonaceous matter, so abundant in the earth, takes from the metal this portion of adhering oxygen, leaving it pure, and free to enter into combination with the sulphur. In justice to the supporters of the Vulcanian theory, it must be also remarked, that essentially different properties, both physical and chemical, distinguish the pyrites, or native sulphurets, from the artificial or factitious. Their crystalline forms, their peculiar splendour, and their iridiscent investiture, yield matter indeed for pertinacious argument, on both sides of the question. But, surely, the circumstance of these crystals being found, often,

often, fast imbedded in so combustible a body as bitumen, speaks strongly in favour of their aqueous origin. Jet is frequently found containing them, or being closely invested by them, and at the same time manifesting no marks of having been acted on by heat; which would surely have been the case, if their formation, which must have been at the time of their fixing themselves in, or attaching themselves to, this substance, had been effected from a substance, in a state of igneous fusion. Their splendour, and their iridiscent surface, appear also to be, at least, as easily accounted for by the agency of water, as by that of fire. Mrs. Fulhame has detailed some very pleasing, and ingenious, experiments, which bear very strong evidence in favour of this opinion of their aqueous origin. This lady impregnated pieces of silk with solutions of various metals, and exposed them, wetted with water, to the action of hydrogen, sulphuretted hydrogen, &c. in consequence of which, they became covered by films of reduced metal; which sometimes, like the native sulphurets, displayed a variety of most lively colours. Even those metals, which were not capable of being precipitated, by the addition of sulphuretted hydrogen to their solutions, in this manner obtained their metallic splendour.

'By these experiments, we are undoubtedly taught, that hydrogen, as well as sulphuretted hydrogen, is capable of reducing the metals, even in the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere: that water promotes these reductions in a very remarkable manner; and that these reductions of the metals are accompanied by a variety of colours, resembling those which frequently mark the surfaces of the splendid natural sulphurets, or pyrites.'

The next topic, on which our author thinks proper to dilate with considerable minuteness, is the natural process of petrifaction. To the doctrine of *substitution*, it is objected, 1st, that lines smaller than hairs, proceeding from the centre of a piece of wood to its circumference, cannot have their component parts removed, and their places exactly filled up by earthy particles, merely deposited by water, so as to preserve their continuity; and, 2dly, that, even on the supposition of this very nice and accurate exchange of the particles of matter, the preservation of the original *colour* of the wood remains to be explained. In reply to the Huttonian hypothesis, which attributes petrifaction to the injection of silex, fused by heat, it is remarked that we cannot well suppose such an injection to have occasioned the destruction of the ligneous texture in some cases, and to have preserved it in others.

'Professor Playfair states that, "on examination, the siliceous matter is often observed to have penetrated the wood very unequally, so that the vegetable structure remains in some places entire; and, in other places, is lost in an homogeneous mass of agate or jasper. Where this happens, it may be remarked, he says, that the line which separates these two parts is quite sharp and distinct; altogether different from what must have taken place, had the flinty matter been introduced into

into the body of the wood, by any fluid in which it was dissolved; as it would then have pervaded the whole, if not uniformly, yet with a regular gradation."

'Mr. Playfair here undoubtedly speaks of specimens which he has either himself seen, or of those, the description of which, he conceives, warrants this account. My objections here must be necessarily feeble, being only of a negative kind. During the perpetual examination, for several years, of specimens of fossil wood, I can say, that I never yet saw one in which the line separating these two parts of the specimen was quite sharp and distinct, and different from what must have taken place, had the flinty matter been introduced into the body of the wood, by any fluid, in which it was dissolved. On the contrary, in numerous specimens now before me, in which the fibres of the fossil wood are in some parts distinct, and in others lost, I seek in vain for any line of distinction, as to the penetration of the wood with siliceous matter; but see in all, no difference whatever in this respect in that part where the structure is confused or where it is distinct; nor do I find the least reason to suppose, that the silex has not pervaded the whole, in the most uniform manner.

"In those specimens of fossil wood that are partly penetrated by agate, and partly not penetrated at all," the Professor says, "the same sharpness of termination may be remarked, and is an appearance highly characteristic of the fluidity produced by fusion." Here I have again to lament the never having had the opportunity of seeing a specimen similar to those which are here alluded to. I possess several specimens of agatine, opaline, and jasperine woods, the appearance of the external parts of which very nearly resemble that of unchanged wood; but examination soon shews that these parts have also been pervaded by the silex. That such speciments do not exist, it is not my intention to assert; it is quite sufficient to remark, that such specimens would only prove that the petrifying matter had only been applied to one particular part of the wood; a circumstance of which there certainly exists no reason to prohibit the occurrence, in the case of the application of an aqueous solution of petrifying matter.

'Mr. Kirwan, indeed, quotes an account, that the Emperor or Germany, being desirous to know the length of time necessary to complete a petrifaction, obtained leave from the Sultan to take up, and examine, one of the timbers that had supported Trajan's bridge over the Danube, some miles below Belgrade. It was found, it is said, to have been converted into an agate, to the depth only of half an inch; the inner parts being slightly petrified, and the central still wood. What authority is due to this account, I pretend not to determine; but must acknowledge, that no circumstance, to which I have arrived at the knowledge of, would have induced me to have expected such an event. If the faet be so, it not only is an additional answer to the reasonings of Mr. Playfair, but proves, as Mr. Kirwan observes, that siliceous particles are soluble in water, are taken up by wood, and that petrifaction is carried on, under appropriate circumstances, in modern times.'

According to the present writer, most petrified wood has previously existed in a bituminized state.

'The

'The form and structure of the wood, with even some of its smaller fibres, are curiously preserved; water pervades every part of it; and its durability is such, as to ensure its preservation until that event happens, on which its consolidation appears to depend—the saturation of the water, with which it is in every part imbued, with earthy particles, chiefly in a state of solution. These consolidating, by the formation of extremely minute crystallizations, through the whole softened mass of bituminized wood, *gives* it an aluminous, a calcareous, or a siliceous substance, without disturbing the existing arrangement of its fibres. Thus appear to be formed all those fossils, which really deserve the name of petrifactions; and thus, perhaps, can, alone, be explained that curious phænomenon—the exact preservation of even the minute fibres of the wood; still retaining their continuity, and their original characteristic disposition, whilst their substance has undergone a conversion into stone.'

This view of the subject is at least ingenious, and certainly not less plausible than others which have been proposed. In its support, the author is obliged to contend for the aqueous origin of siliceous pebbles. Chemists have, no doubt, shewn that silica may be held in solution by water: but this solution must be previously effected by some other agent.—Having discussed his general principles of petrifaction, Mr. Parkinson proceeds to describe the different varieties of *silicized* wood, which he designates according to their predominant impregnations, as *calcedonic*, *agatine*, *jasperized*, &c. That the ligneous structure is more or less manifest in all fossil wood will scarcely be disputed: but we are not yet so lost in bituminous fermentation, as to affirm that 'most jaspers owe something in their composition to *vegetable* matter, changed by those processes to which it was necessarily subjected after the universal deluge.'—Different curious specimens of fossil opaline wood are well described, and neatly displayed in the coloured plates. The resinous lustre of some of the species suggests their affinity with pitch-stone, particularly with the ligniform kinds: but that this lustre is owing to bitumen, impregnated with silica, will admit of considerable doubt. It is hinted, however, that traces of bitumen may be detected in the semi-opal, and in the opal itself, whether in its ordinary or hydrophanous state; and that similar indications may, perhaps, be discovered in flint and horn-stone.

The history of the calcareous petrifications is not attended with the same difficulty as that of the siliceous; the deposition of carbonate of lime from various springs and rivers being obvious to daily notice. In a work, therefore, consecrated to the organic remains of an antediluvian world, we conceive it a superfluous task to enumerate the most celebrated instances

of

of such calcareous depositions. We cannot, however, omit mentioning an ingenious application of this natural process:

'Dr. Leonard Vegni has established, at the baths of St. Philip, in Tuscany, a manufactory, to precipitate this fine *tufa* on medals and bas reliefs, and to get by that means the finest impressions. He causes this hot incrustating water to fall, from on high, into a large vessel, and to break upon a wooden cross; whereby it is separated into a fine spray, and directed against the sides of the vessel, on which, all around, the medals, or bas reliefs, or their mouldings or forms, are hanging. The falling or breaking of the water imparts a greater impulsion to its drops, and to its *turfo* or *tartaro;* which, without this manipulation, would be but farinaceous, friable, and spongy. Mr. Ferber, from whose work the above account of this process is extracted, says, that Dr. Vegni has succeeded already in casting busts of this *tufa*, and he soon hopes to cast statues of natural size. Since the publication of the above account, I learn that Dr. Vegni has applied the waters at Tivoli to the same ingenious purposes.'

The examples of metallized wood, which are here adduced, are chiefly confined to impregnations of iron and copper, especially to bog iron ore, and the beautiful Siberian Malachites.

With respect to the varieties of petrified wood, we find this judicious remark:

'Imagination, in many instances, has so much assisted conjecture, respecting the kind of tree from which the fossil wood has originated, that opinions respecting this circumstance should be received with caution; since very frequently the supposed resemblance is founded on colour, and on direction of fibres, which may have undergone considerable changes, and have even owed those particular appearances, to the influence of circumstances dependent on a subterranean situation. Whilst, in some, their vague and indistinct marks are insufficient to allow of any opinion being adopted respecting their primitive form; in others, appearances offer themselves dissimilar to those of any known recent tree.'

Mr. Parkinson appears to have examined the starry stone of Chemnitz with very particular attention, and to have proved that its singular appearance is not ascribable to the natural pores of the wood, to any coralline body, nor to the stalks of pentacrinites. With M. Walch, he is inclined to believe that it exhibits the remains of some unknown zoophyte.

The fossil vegetable impressions, which so much abound in schistus, sand-stone, calcareous strata, and argillaceous nodules, are generally acknowleged to be of a formation posterior to the deluge; and the difficulty of determining even the genera to which they belong is well known to the most skilful botanists. Many of them seem to pertain to the families of

reeds,

reeds, ferns, and carti, and to have been the produce of a warm climate. The President of the Linnéan Society has, with much hesitation, pronounced on a few; and several of the older botanists have advanced very different opinions concerning the prototypes of the same impressions. The circumstance of the same side of a leaf appearing on two halves of an argillaceous nodule is here thus ingeniously explained:

'The iron stone nodule, on being split, affords the most satisfactory evidence as to the nature of the change which the vegetable matter undergoes in these cases, since here, bitumen will uniformly be found to have taken the place, which vegetable matter had originally possessed. Reverting, therefore, only to the position, that vegetable matter, secluded from the air, in a moist situation, will pass through a certain fermentative process, by which it will be converted to bitumen; the key to this enigmatic phænomenon is at once found. The leaf, involved in the tenacious argillaceous matter necessarily forms a mould bearing its exact form; and after a certain period, during which the surrounding mass acquires a greater degree of hardness, and a nodular form, the vegetable matter changes into bitumen, which fills the mould, and assumes exactly the same form which the leaf originally bore. If therefore, the nodule be now split, one of these two circumstances will occur—either the bitumen will, by the breaking of the nodule, be separated and lost, leaving the impressions on both sides of the leaf perfect: or it will separate from one side only, and adhere to the other; when the side from which it has separated will yield the impression of the leaf, and the bituminous matter itself, possessing the place of the leaf, will present a surface analogous to that of the leaf from which the impression was originally derived. The separated flake of bitumen, mentioned in the first case, has in some instances been preserved; the description which has been given of it, it being said to resemble a piece of leather or parchment, agreeing much better with its possessing a bituminous nature, than its being a mere dried leaf.'

Without dwelling on the concluding and general remarks, which involve much theological conjecture, we shall close this cursory report of the first part of Mr. Parkinson's labours, by expressing our sincere wishes that, in the prosecution of his arduous design, he may manifest the same diligence in collecting facts, and more taste and judgment in digesting them; and that, while he bestows on his materials similar liberal embellishments of paper, typography, and engraving, he may mould them into a more seemly mass, and spare his readers many pages of tedious and gratuitous discussion.

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ART. II. *The Life of George Washington, Commander in Chief of the American Forces*, &c. &c. By John Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States. Vol. II. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips. 1804.

IN our observations on the first part of this publication *, we animadverted on the discordance between the title and the tenor of the performance; and we are sorry to be obliged to state that the present volume is liable to the same censure. On perusing the title-page, the reader is led to expect an ample detail of the particulars of General Washington's whole life, and to anticipate the disclosure of incidents and anecdotes which had never before transpired beyond the circle of private acquaintance: but, when he sits down to the work itself, he finds it to be rather a North American history than a biographical memoir, and less detailed and connected than those of which the public is already in possession. He will, however, here meet with some statements which manifest ability and discrimination; as well as some political and moral remarks which shew that the writer is rather sparing of research than deficient in talents, and the requisite qualifications.

The first page of this volume commences in the following terms:

'George Washington, the third son of Augustine Washington, was born in Virginia, at Bridges-Creek in the county of Westmorland, on the 22d of February, 1732. He was the great grandson of John Washington, a gentleman of very respectable family in the north of England, who had emigrated about the year 1657, and settled on the place where young Mr. Washington was born.

'Very early in life the cast of his genius disclosed itself. The war in which his country was then engaged against France and Spain, first kindled those latent sparks which afterwards blazed with equal splendour and advantage; and at the age of fifteen he urged so pressingly to be permited to enter into the British navy, that the place of midshipman was obtained for him. The interference of a timid and affectionate mother suspended for a time the commencement of his military course.

'He lost his father at the age of ten years, and received what was denominated an English education; a term which excludes the acquisition of other languages than our own. As his patrimonial estate was by no means considerable, his youth was employed in useful industry: and in the practice of his profession as a surveyor, he had an opportunity of acquiring that information respecting vacant lands, and of forming those opinions concerning their future value, which afterwards greatly contributed to the increase of his private fortune.

'It is strong evidence of the opinion entertained of his capacity, that when not more than nineteen years of age, and at a time when

* See Rev. vol. xliv. N. S. p. 337.

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the militia were to be trained for actual service, he was appointed one of the adjutants-general of Virginia, with the rank of major. The duties annexed to this office were performed by him for a very short time. The plan formed by France for connecting her extensive dominions in America, by uniting Canada with Louisiana, now began to develope itself. Possession was taken of a tract of country then deemed to be within the province of Virginia, and a line of posts was commenced from the Lakes to the Ohio. The attention of Mr. Dinwiddie, the lieutenant-governor of that province, was attracted by these supposed encroachments; and he deemed it his duty to demand, in the name of the king his master, that they should desist from the prosecution of designs which violated, as he thought, the treaties between the two crowns. A proper person was to be selected for the performance of this duty, which, at that time, was very properly believed to be a very arduous one. A great part of the country, through which the envoy was to pass was almost entirely unexplored, and inhabited only by Indians, many of whom were hostile to the English, and others of doubtful attachment. While the dangers and fatigues of the journey deterred those from undertaking it who did not extend their views to the future scenes to be exhibited in that country, or who did not wish to be actors in them, they seem to have furnished motives to Mr. Washington for desiring to be employed in this hazardous service, and he engaged in it with the utmost alacrity.'

Thus does the writer hurry the illustrious subject of his labours at once into public life, without any notice of the periods of childhood and youth; totally regardless of the demands of that curiosity which is natural in cultivated society, and which requires to be informed of incidents, even apparently trifling, that are connected with a great character. The ability displayed by our youthful hero in the above mentioned expedition, his wise conduct towards the friendly Indians, his address and management in defeating the arts practised by the French to seduce them, his observations on the fort built by the Ohio Company, his selection of the very spot for the erection of one on which the French afterward constructed that of du Quesne, and the firmness displayed by him when surrounded by obstacles and dangers, broadly intimate his fitness for those high destinies which he was subsequently called to fulfil.

The answer of the French commander being unfavourable, the Assembly of Virginia collected a force of 300 men, in which Mr. Washington was second in command under one Frye: who dying shortly afterward, Washington filled the first place. On receiving his appointment,

'Extremely solicitous to be engaged as early as possible in active service, and to be usefully employed, he obtained permission, about the beginning of April, to march with two companies, in advance of the other troops, to the Great Meadows. By this measure he ex-

pected to protect the country, to make himself more perfectly acquainted with it, as well as with the situations and designs of the enemy; and to preserve the friendship of the savages Immediately after his arrival at that place, he was visited by some friendly Indians, who informed him that the French had dispossessed a party of workmen employed by the Ohio Company to erect a fort on the south-eastern branch of the Ohio, and were themselves then engaged in completing a fortification at the confluence of the Aleghany and Monongahela rivers; and that a detachment from that place was then on its march towards the Great Meadows. Open hostilities had not yet commenced, but the country was considered as invaded; and several circumstances were related contributing to the opinion that this party was approaching with hostile views. Among others it was stated that they had left the path some distance, and had encamped for the night in a bottom, in a secret retired situation, as if to secure concealment. The Indians offering themselves as guides, Colonel Washington set out in a dark rainy night, in the course of which he surrounded and completely surprised the French encampment, which was but a few miles west of the Great Meadows, About day-break his troops fired, and rushed upon the French, who immediately surrendered; one man only escaped; and M. Jumonville, the commanding officer of the party, was the only person killed.'

It was on this day that our hero first fleshed his sword, and that the first blood was shed in the glorious war of 1756. Though our young commander was soon afterward obliged to retreat before a superior force, and to shut himself up in *Fort Necessity*, which was not able long to hold out against its numerous assailants, he displayed on every occasion a gallantry and a cool courage which very highly raised his reputation.

'Great credit was given to Colonel Washington by his countrymen for the courage displayed on this occasion; and the Legislature were so satisfied with the conduct of the party, as to vote their thanks to him and the officers under his command. They also gave three hundred pistoles, to be distributed among the soldiers engaged in the action, as a reward for their bravery

'To the vote of thanks, the officers made the following reply:—

"We, the officers of the Virginia regiment, are highly sensible of the particular mark of distinction with which you have honoured us, in returning your thanks for our behaviour in the late action; and cannot help testifying our grateful acknowledgements for your "*high sense*" of what we shall always esteem a duty to our country and the best of kings.

"Favoured with your regard, we shall zealously endeavour to deserve your applause, and by our future actions strive to convince the worshipful House of Burgesses, how much we esteem their approbation; and, as it ought to be, regard it as the voice of our country.

"Signed, for the whole corps,

"GEORGE WASHINGTON."

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The above answer of the officers shews what a loyal spirit existed at this time in the colonies; and on other occasions, as well as on this, we find Washington making ardent professions of loyalty,—professions which were in thorough unison with his conduct. Regulations most unjust and impolitic, originating in the spirit that afterward lost us the colonies, deprived the British service of this promising young officer; for we learn that, in the course of the winter,

'Orders were received for settling the rank of the officers of His Majesty's forces, when joined or serving with the provincial forces in North America; which directed, that all officers commissioned by the King, or by his General commanding in chief in North America, should take rank of all officers commissioned by the Governors of the respective provinces. And further, that the general and field officers of the provincial troops should have no rank when serving with the general and field-officers commissioned by the Crown: but that all captains and other inferior officers of the royal troops should take rank over provincial officers of the same degree having senior commissions.

'Though his original attachment to a military life had been rather increased by the applauses bestowed on his first essay in arms, Colonel Washington possessed too entirely the proud and punctilious feelings of a soldier to submit to a degradation so humiliating as this. Professing his unabated inclination to continue in the service, he retired indignantly from it, and answered the various letters which he received, pressing him still to hold his commission, with assurances that he should serve with pleasure, when he should be enabled to do so without dishonour.

'His eldest brother, Mr. Lawrence Washington, who had been engaged in the expedition against Carthagena, had lately died, and left him a considerable estate on the Potomack, which, in compliment to the admiral who commanded the fleet engaged in that enterprise, by whom he had been particularly noticed, he had called *Mount Vernon*.

'To this delightful spot Colonel Washington now withdrew, resolving to devote all his future attention to the avocations of private life.'

General Braddock, apprized of the merits of Mr. Washington, invited him in the handsomest manner to volunteer in his army, and to accept of the place of his aid de camp; with which offer he closed. Nothing is better known in our history than the fate of that General's unfortunate expedition, and the great credit gained by Washington in the course of it. His account of the affair of Monongahela, which contains the most severe reflections on the *regular*, while it is highly flattering to the *provincial* troops, is remarkable for that perspicuity and method which distinguish all his communications.

So high was the opinion entertained of Colonel Washington in Virginia, that, on its being resolved to raise a regiment in that province, he was appointed to the command of it, complimented with the nomination of his own field officers, and designated in his commission as the commander in chief of all the troops raised and to be raised in the colony of Virginia. This situation only served to put to the severest test his magnanimity, patience, and patriotism. The dilatoriness, indecision, and parsimony of the governor and assembly occasioned successive ravages in the western counties of the province, which would have been all prevented had the advice of the Colonel been followed: but it was disregarded, and the back settlers became the victims of the cruelty and pillage of the French and Indians. His repeated admonitions, (addressed first to the assembly and to Dinwiddie the Lieutenant-Governor, and afterward to Loudoun who succeeded the latter in the government,) to raise a force sufficient for taking Fort du Quesne, were also totally slighted. When in 1757 that measure was adopted, and which only failed in 1755 because the hints of Washington were not followed, it was his fate again to find his representations set aside, and a plan pursued which must have miscarried. Nothing, he says in a letter written at that time, can save the colony from extreme danger, and the troops from ruin, but a miracle: happily, the influence of external events worked that miracle; the fleet took the provisions which were destined for the French fort; the pressure on Canada prevented the arrival of reinforcements; and that strong place, which the British had no means of taking, was abandoned by the enemy. Loudoun and Forbes appear to have been men of ordinary souls. Either jealous of the merit of Washington, or wanting talents to discern it, they persevered in the blundering system of Dinwiddie; who not only had neglected the counsels of the commander, but had treated him in a harsh and haughty manner: even heaping insults on the man who was destined to be one of the first characters that occur in human annals. Unfortunately for them, the names of those persons who undervalued his salutary admonitions through weakness, jealously, or feelings still more base, live in history to excite the contempt and indignation of mankind to the latest times.—Speaking with becoming warmth of the sordid beings who adopted the disastrous measures which he ceased not to oppose in every way that became him, he says in one of his letters:

'See how our time has been mis-spent; behold how the golden opportunity is lost, perhaps never moe to be regained! How is it to be

be accounted for? Can General Forbes have orders for this? Impossible. Will, then, our injured country pass by such abuses? I hope, not. Rather let a full representation of the matter go to His Majesty; let him know how grossly his glory and interests, and the public money, have been prostituted.'

It must be owned that this command, in which he was thwarted in every point, and in which he was seen labouring under every defect of means, and ordered to work impossibilities, served as an admirable school to qualify him for that higher sphere in which he was called to move when the states were driven to revolt. We may form some idea of his situation, from a passage in one of his letters written at the time:

'Whence it arises, or why, I am truly ignorant, but my strongest representations of matters relative to the peace of the frontiers are disregarded as idle and frivolous; my propositions and measures as partial and selfish; and all my sincerest endeavours for the service of my country perverted to the worst purposes. My orders are dark, doubtful, and uncertain. To day approved, to-morrow condemned; left to act and proceed at hazard; accountable for the consequences, and blamed without the benefit of defence. If you can think my situation capable of exciting the smallest degree of envy, or of affording the least satisfaction, the truth is yet hid from you, and you entertain notions very different from the reality of the case. However, I am determined to bear up under all these embarrassments some time longer, in the hope of better regulations under Lord Loudoun, to whom I look for the future fate of Virginia.'

We cannot help observing that, at this period, amid all the great and solid qualities which shine in Mr. Washington's conduct, we discover something of the young man in his proceedings; he relied too much on the justice of his cause, he endeavoured to advance too directly towards his object, and he did not reckon sufficiently on the infirmities of men. He did not seem to be aware that, in order to render talents useful and plans successful, recourse must often be had to arts at which excellent intentions very naturally spurn. We feel, however, little inclination to pursue this Machiavelian view of human affairs, which experience unfortunately sanctions, and which this part of the present history too forcibly suggests.

The subsequent extracts from two of Washington's letters to the Lieutenant-Governor will give an idea of the treatment which he received from that weak, obstinate, and rude man:

"I must beg leave, before I conclude, to observe in justification of my own conduct, that it is with pleasure I receive reproof when reproof is due, because no person can be readier to accuse me than I am to acknowledge an error when I have committed it; nor more desirous of atoning for a crime when I am sensible of being guilty of one. But, on the other hand, it is with concern I remark, that my best en-

deavours lose their reward, and that my conduct, although I have uniformly studied to make it as unexceptionable as I could, does not appear to you in a favourable point of light. Otherwise, your Honour would not have accused me of *loose* behaviour, and *remissness* of duty, in matters where, I think, I have rather exceeded than fallen short of it."—

"That I have foibles, and perhaps many of them, I shall not deny; I should esteem myself, as the world also would, vain and empty, were I to arrogate perfection.

"Knowledge in military matters is to be acquired by practice and experience only: and if I have erred, great allowance should be made for my errors for want of them, unless those errors should appear to be wilful; and then I conceive it will be more generous to charge me with my faults, and let me stand or fall according to evidence, than to stigmatize me behind my back.

"It is uncertain in what light my services may have appeared to your Honour; but this I know, and it is the highest consolation I am capable of feeling, that no man that ever was employed in a public capacity has endeavoured to discharge the trust reposed in him with greater honesty and more zeal for the country's interest, than I have done: and if there is any person living who can say with justice that I have offered any intentional wrong to the public, I will cheerfully submit to the most ignominious punishment that an injured people ought to inflict. On the other hand, it is hard to have my character arraigned, and my actions condemned, without a hearing.

"I must therefore again beg, in *more plain* and in *very earnest* terms, to know if ——— has taken the liberty of representing my conduct to your Honour with such ungentlemanly freedom as the letter implies? Your condescension herein will be acknowledged a singular favour."

Washington's comprehension of mind, his sound views, his deep penetration, his counsels and predictions, which the event ever sanctioned, and which may be collected from his communications with the Governor and Assembly of Virginia, bespoke him, even at that period, to be a man who would act a great part on the theatre of the world, if opportunity should ever offer. A peculiarly high tribute from his officers furnishes a remarkable testimony to the transcendancy of his native powers, which the simplicity of his manners and his unassuming conduct concealed from superficial observers.

As Col. W. afterward resigned his command, and acted no farther in the war then existing, we are carried on all at once to the peace of 1763, and to the disputes between the mother-country and the colonies, which had so fatal an issue.

The following is a very just and satisfactory view of the notions prevalent in America with respect to the dependence of the colonies on Great Britain:

'The degree of authority which might rightfully be exercised by the mother-country over her colonies had never been accurately defined.

fined. In Britain it had always been asserted, that, Parliament possessed the power of binding them in all cases whatsoever. In America, at different times, and in different colonies, different opinions had been entertained on this subject.

'In New England, originally settled by republicans, and, during the depression of the regal government, the favourite of the English nation, habits of independence had nourished the theory, that the colonial assemblies possessed all the powers of legislation not surrendered by compact: that the Americans were subjects of the British crown, but not of the nation; and were bound by no laws to which their representatives had not assented. From this high ground they had been compelled reluctantly to recede. The judges, being generally appointed by the governors, with the advice of council, had determined that the colonies were bound by acts of parliament which concerned them, and which were expressly extended to them; and we have seen the general court of Massachussetts, on a late occasion, explicity recognising the same principle. This had perhaps become the opinion of many of the best informed men in the province; but the doctrine seems still to have been extensively maintained, that acts of parliament possessed only an external obligation; that they could regulate commerce, but not the interior affairs of the colonies.

'In the year 1692, immediately after the receipt of their new charter granted by William and Mary, the legislature of Massachussetts had passed an act denying most explicitly the right of any authority, other than that of the General Court, to impose on the colony any tax whatever; and also asserting those principles of national liberty which are found in Magna Charta. Not long afterwards the legislature of New York, probably with a view only to the authority claimed by the Governor, and not to that of the mother-country, passed an act similar to that of Massachussetts, in which its own supremacy, not only in matters of taxation, but of general legislation, is expressly asserted. Both these acts, however, were disapproved in England, and the Parliament asserted its authority by a law passed in 1696, declaring "that all laws, by-laws, usages, and customs, which shall be in practice in any of the plantations, repugnant to any law made, or to be made, in this kingdom relative to the said plantations, shall be void and of none effect." And three years afterwards an act was passed for the trial of pirates in America, in which is to be found the following very extraordinary clause: "Be it further declared, that if any of the governors, or any person or persons in authority there shall refuse to yield obedience to this act, such refusal is hereby declared to be a forfeiture of all and every the charters granted for the government and propriety of such plantation."

'The English statute-book furnishes many instances in which the legislative power of Parliament over the colonies was exercised so as to make regulations completely internal; and in no instance that is recollected was their authority openly controverted.

'In the middle and southern provinces no question respecting the supremacy of Parliament, in matters of general legislation, ever existed. The authority of such of their acts of internal regulation as were made for America, as well as of those for the regulation of commerce, even

by the imposition of duties, provided those duties were imposed for the purposes of regulation, had been at all times admitted. But even these colonies, however they might acknowledge the supremacy of Parliament in other respects, denied the right of that body to tax them internally.'—

'A scheme for taxing the colonies by authority of Parliament had been formed so early as the year 1739, and recommended to Government by a club of American merchants, at the head of whom was Sir William Keith, Govenor of Pennsylvania. It was proposed to raise a body of regulars, to be stationed along the western frontier of the British settlements, for the protection of the Indian traders, the expence of which establishmemt was to be paid with monies arising from a duty on stamped paper and parchment in all the colonies, to be imposed by Parliament. This plan, however, was not countenanced by the then Minister; and it seems never to have been seriously taken up by the Government until the year 1754, when a war, in which every part of the empire was deeply concerned, was about to commence. Some of the colonies themselves appear then to have wished that a mode could be adopted which should combine their exertions, and equitably apportion their expences in the common cause. The attention of the Minister was then turned to a plan of taxation by authority of Parliament; and it will be recollected that a system was devised and recommended by him, as a substitute for the articles of union digested and agreed on by the Convention at Albany. The temper and opinions of the colonists on this subject, which means were used to ascertain; the impolicy of irritating them at a crisis which required all the exertions they were capable of making; furnished motives sufficient to induce a suspension, for the present, of a measure so delicate and dangerous: but it seems not to have been totally abandoned. Of the right of Parliament, as the supreme authority of the nation, to tax as well as to govern the colonies, those who guided the councils of Britain seem not to have entertained a doubt; and the language of men in power, on more than one occasion through the war, indicated a disposition to put this right in practice, when the termination of hostilities should render it less dangerous to do so. The conduct of some of the colonies, especially those in which a proprietary government was established, in failing to furnish in time the aids required of them, contributed to foster this disposition. This total opposition of opinion, on a subject the most interesting to the human heart, was now about to produce a system of measures which tore asunder all the bonds of relationship and affection which had for ages subsisted, and planted almost inextinguishable hatred in bosoms where the warmest friendship had so long been cultivated.'

Burdensome duties, and inconvenient restrictions on trade, originating in a spirit of avarice and domination, harshly enforced in newly created courts, generated a temper in the Americans, which readily disposed them to resist all encroachments, and more particularly one of the magnitude of that which was now attempted by the short-sighted cabinet of the mother-country. The deep and solemn tone of conviction apparent in all the petitions and addresses

dresses of the states, as is here observed, 'ought to have produced a certainty that the principles assumed in them had made a strong impression, and would not lightly be abandoned: it ought to have been foreseen that, with such a people, so determined, the conflict must be stern and hazardous; and, even if ultimate success might be counted on, it was well worth the estimate, whether the object would compensate the means used in obtaining it.'

The success of the struggle appears to have been owing to the commander in chief alone; and it was by his less shewy qualities that it was ensured. He was more indebted to his patience, his firmness, and his perseverance, than to his military talents: the skilful commanders, and the tried and disciplined troops of Great Britain, were his least formidable opponents; the main difficulties with which he had to encounter arose from the mistaken notions, and fatal errors, of the authorities under which he acted, and from radical faults in the constitution of the army which he commanded:—difficulties by which most other men would have been overwhelmed. 'The Americans,' it is stated, 'were greatly elated by the intrepidity their raw troops had displayed, and the execution which had been done by them at Bunker's Hill. Their opinion of the superiority of veterans over men untrained to the duties of a soldier, sustained no inconsiderable diminution; and they fondly cherished the belief, that courage and dexterity in the use of fire-arms would bestow advantages amply compensating the want of discipline.'

In a letter to Congress, Washington writes:

"It is not," says he, "in the pages of history to furnish a case like ours. To maintain a post within musket shot of the enemy for six months together without ammunition, and at the same time to disband one army, and recruit another, within that distance of twenty odd British regiments, is more than, probably, ever was attempted. But if we succeed as well in the latter as we have hitherto done in the former, I shall think it the most fortunate event of my whole life."

On another occasion, addressing the same body, he observes,

"True it is, and I cannot help acknowledging, that, I have many disagreeable sensations on account of my situation; for to have the eyes of the whole Continent fixed on me, with anxious expectation of some great event, and to be restrained in every military operation for want of the necessary means to carry it on, is not very pleasing; especially as the means used to conceal my weakness from the enemy, conceals it also from our friends, and adds to their wonder."

The author of these pages thus accounts for the failure of the attempt against Quebec;—the plan and execution of which would

would have done credit to Generals of the highest name, and of the greatest experience:

'In war, the success of the most judicious plans often depends on accidents not to be foreseen or controuled. Seldom has the truth of this position been more clearly demonstrated, than in the issue of the expedition conducted by Colonel Arnold. The situation of the enemy conformed exactly to the expectations of the commander in chief. Not suspecting that so bold and difficult an enterprize could possibly be meditated, Quebec had been left entirely defenceless, and all the strength of the province had been collected towards the lakes. Could Arnold have reached that place but a few days sooner; could he even have crossed the river on his first arrival at Point Levi, before the town was entered by M'Lean; had Colonel Enos been able to follow the main body with his division of the detachment; or had the first moments after passing the St. Lawrence been seized; every probability favours the opinion, that this hardy, and well-judged expedition, would have been crowned with the most brilliant success. Had Arnold even been careful to relieve the inhabitants of the town from all fears respecting their property, there is much reason to believe, they would have refused to defend it. But although this bold enterprize was planned with judgment, and executed with vigour; although the means employed were adequate to the object; yet the concurrence of several minute and unfavourable incidents entirely defeated it, and deprived it of that *eclat* to which it was justly entitled.'

The account here given of the progress of the American mind, from attempts to redress grievances to the attainment of absolute independence, is detailed in a manner that is creditable to the ability of the writer.

Animadverting on the confusion and panic which affected the troops on evacuating New York, Mr. Marshall observes:

'The apprehensions excited, by the defeat on Long Island, had not yet subsided, nor had the American troops recovered their confidence either in themselves or their commanders. Their situation appeared to themselves to be perilous, and they had not yet acquired that temper which teaches the veteran to do his duty wherever he may be placed; to assure himself that others will do their duty likewise; and to rely that those, who take into view the situation of the whole, will not expose him to useless hazards, or neglect those precautions, which the safety and advantage of the whole may require.

'Unfortunately, causes, in addition to those so often stated, existed in a great part of the army, which were but too operative in obstructing the progress of such military sentiments. In New England, from whence the war had, as yet, been principally supported, the zeal excited by the revolution had taken such a direction, as in a great degree, to abolish those distinctions between the platoon-officers and the soldiers, which are so indispensable to the formation of an army capable of being applied to all the purposes of war. In many instances, these officers, who constitute so important a part of every army, were elected by the men; and a disposition to associate with them, on the footing

footing of equality, was a recommendation of much more weight, and frequently conduced much more to the choice, than individual merit. It has been stated, by gentlemen of high rank, that, in some instances, those were elected, who agreed to put their pay in mess with the soldiers, and to divide equally with them. Among such officers, the most disgraceful and unmilitary practices frequently prevailed; and the privates could not sufficiently respect them, to acquire habits of obedience and subordination.'

The sketch of Washington in the following passage lays claim at least to accuracy:

'Among the many valuable traits in the character of General Washington, was that unyielding firmness of mind which resisted these accumulated circumstances of depression, and supported him under them. Undismayed by the dangers which surrounded him, he did not, for an instant, relax his exertions, nor omit any thing which could obstruct the progress of the enemy, or ameliorate his own condition. He did not appear to despair of the public safety, but struggled against adverse fortune, with the hope of yet vanquishing the difficulties which surrounded him; and constantly shewed himself to his harassed and enfeebled army, with a serene unembarrassed countenance, betraying no fears within himself, and invigorating and inspiring with confidence the bosoms of others. To this unconquerable firmness of temper, to this perfect self possession, under the most desperate circumstances, is America, in a great degree, indebted for her independence.'

The effects of the bold, judicious, and unexpected attacks made at Trenton and Princeton, by forces believed to have been vanquished, are here ably stated:

'These advantages (we are told) had an influence on the fate of the war much more extensive in its consequences, than from a mere estimate of the killed, and taken, would be supposed. They saved Philadelphia for the present winter; they recovered the state of Jersey; and, which was of still more importance, they revived the drooping spirits of America, and gave a sensible impulse to the recruiting service throughout the United States.

'The problem, whether a nation can be defended, against a permanent force, by temporary armies; by occasional calls of the husbandman from his plough to the field; was already solved: and in its demonstration, the independence of America had nearly perished in its cradle. All eyes were now turned on the army to be created for the ensuing campaign, as the only solid basis on which the hopes of the patriot could rest. During the retreat through the Jerseys, and while the expectation prevailed, that no effectual resistance could be made to the advance of the enemy, some spirited men, indeed, were only animated to greater and more determined exertions; but such was not the operation of this state of things on the great mass from whence is to be drawn the solid force of armies. There appeared, especially in the middle states, the pause of distrust. Doubts, concerning the issue of the contest, became more extensive; and the bu-

siness of recruiting proceeded so heavily and slowly, as to excite the most anxious solicitude for the future.

'The affairs of Trenton and Princeton were represented and considered as great victories. They were believed, by the body of the people, to evidence the superiority of their army, and of their general. The opinion that they were engaged in a hopeless contest yielded to a confidence, that proper exertions on their part would be crowned with ultimate success.'

This volume terminates with deliberations, much resembling the minutes of a council of state, which will, we presume, be deemed worthy of perusal by our readers:

'When reduced to their lowest ebb, towards the close of 1776, while the tide of fortune was running strongest against them, some few members, distrusting their ability to make a successful resistance, proposed to authorise commissioners, deputed to the court of Versailles, to transfer to that country the same monopoly of their trade which Great Britain had hitherto enjoyed. This proposition is stated to have been relinquished, because it was believed that concessions of this kind would destroy the force of many arguments which had been used in favour of independence, and probably disunite the people. It was next proposed to offer a monopoly of certain enumerated articles of produce: to this, the clashing interests of the different states were so directly opposed, that it received a speedy and decided negative. Some proposed offering to France a league offensive and defensive; but this also was rejected. The more enlightened members of Congress argued, that, though the friendship of small states might be purchased, that of France could not. They alleged, that, if she would risk a war with Great Britain, by openly espousing their cause, it would not be so much from the prospect of direct advantages, as from a natural desire to lessen the overgrown power of a dangerous rival. It was therefore supposed, that the only inducement likely to influence France to an interference, was an assurance that the United States were determined to persevere in refusing to return to their former allegiance. Under the influence of this better opinion, resolutions were again entered into, declaratory of their determination to listen to no terms founded on the idea of their resuming the character of British subjects, but trusting the event to Providence, and risking all consequences; to adhere to the independence they had declared, and the freedom of trade they had proffered to all nations. Copies of these resolutions were sent to the principal courts of Europe; and proper persons were appointed to solicit their friendship to the new-formed states. These dispatches fell into the hands of the British, and by them were published—a circumstance by no means unwished for by Congress; who were persuaded, that an apprehension of their making up all differences with Great Britain was a principal objection to the interference of foreign courts in what was represented to be no more than a domestic quarrel. A resolution, adopted in the deepest distress, and in the worst of times, that Congress would listen to no terms of re-union with the parent state would, it was believed, convince those who wished for the dismemberment of the British empire, that it

it was sound policy to interfere so far as would prevent the conquest of the United States.'

These homely colonists appear to have been more sagacious politicians than the fine gentlemen who composed the cabinet of Great Britain.

A third volume has appeared, and will be the subject of a future article. Jo.

ART. III. *Analytical Essays towards promoting the Chemical Knowledge of Mineral Substances.* By Martin Henry Klaproth, Professor of Chemistry at Berlin, &c. &c. Vol. II. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 267. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

IN the year 1795, this veteran mineralogist collected the analytical papers which he had consigned to various periodical publications, and formed them into a separate volume. A second made its appearance in 1797; and the valuable contents of both were translated into English, and published in a single octavo in 1801 *. Nearly about the same time, the author published a third volume, of which we have now to announce the translation. As it contains forty-four essays, or chemical examinations of as many kinds of recently discovered or interesting mineral substances, we purpose, agreeably to the mode in which we reported the first two volumes of the original, (xxii. N. S. p. 571. and xxv. p. 579.) to point out the titles, and some of the most important results. The enumeration will necessarily be dry, but by no means unacceptable to our mineralogical readers.

LXXIII. *Auriferous Ores from Transylvania.*—This paper is particularly valuable on account of the variety of the specimens submitted to examination. Müller first suggested that the *aurum paradoxum*, or *metallum problematicum* of the German mineralogists, was perhaps a distinct metal. Professor Klaproth, who analyzed it with particular attention, confirmed the conjecture, and denominated this native ore *Tellurium.* A thousand grains of the ore were found to yield 925.50 of Tellurium, 72 of iron, and 2.50 of gold.

Of all the fusible metals, Tellurium possesses the least specific gravity, being to water only as 6,185 to 1,000. It likewise fuses before ignition, melting later than lead, but sooner than antimony. 'Upon charcoal, before the blow-pipe, it *inflames* with a violence resembling detonation, with a vivid, light-blue, and on the edges greenish flame, and entirely flies off in

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* Noticed at page 98 of the 39th vol. of our New Series.

vapours of the appearance of a grey white smoke; which invests the charcoal in the most contiguous places with a white, but the remoter ones with a bluish coating, and is also particularly distinguished by the somewhat nauseous *radish-like smell* which it emits.'

One hundred grains of the *aurum graphicum* (*Schrifterz* of the Germans) gave of native tellurium 60, gold 30, silver 10.—The yellow auriferous ore, in which the gold exists *native*, contains 44.75 tellurium, 26.75 gold, 19.50 lead, 8.50 silver, 0.50 sulphur.—The foliated or lamellar ore (*Blättererz*), now properly considered as a distinct species, exhibits the following proportions of ingredients:—lead 54, tellurium 32.2, gold 9, silver 0.5, copper 1.3, sulphur 3.

LXXIV. *Sulphurated Oxyd of Manganese, from Transylvania.*—This unusual combination of a black sulphurated oxyde of manganese, from Szekeremb in Transylvania, contains, when purified, oxyde of manganese, soluble in nitric acid, 82, carbonic acid 5, sulphur 11.

LXXV. *Tungstate of Lime from Schlackenwalde in Bohemia.*—Among the important discoveries of Scheele, was that of a peculiar metallic substance in the tungstate of lime. The pearl-coloured variety, from the iron mine of *Bitsberg*, in Sweden, gave to that eminent chemist, oxyde of tungsten 65, lime 31, silex 4: whereas the Bohemian specimen yielded to M. Klaproth, oxyde of tungsten 77.75, lime 17.60, silex 3. The constituents of a Cornish specimen were found to be, oxyde of tungsten 75.25, lime 18.70, silex 1.50, oxyde of iron 1.25, oxyde of manganese 0.75.

LXXVI. *Gadolinite.*—The Professor's experiments on this new earth, which contains yttria, fully confirm the observations of Gadolin and Ekeberg; and they suggest, moreover, a new method, borrowed from Gehlen, of separating the oxyde of iron from earthy bodies: namely, by dissolving the mass in sulphuric acid, and, the latter being neutralized, adding succinat of soda to the solution, when the iron is precipitated in the state of a succinate.

'By way of conclusion, (says the author,) I add only this remark, that it is not always adviseable, to take the denomination of a new-discovered substance or natural body from any one of its properties singly. At the time that *Vauquelin* gave to the new earth which he discovered in the beryl and emerald, the name of *glucine* or *sweet earth*, from its property of forming sweet neutral salts; he certainly did not expect that shortly after another earth would be found, entitled with an equal right to claim the same name. Whence, in order to prevent the confounding the glucine with yttria, it might perhaps be prudent to suppress the denomination, *glucine:* and to use in its stead that of *Eeryllina;* which last has already been recommended by

by Professor *Link*, more especially upon the ground that there already exists a genus of plants called *glucine*.'

LXXVII. *Egyptian Natrum.* Five hundred grains, freed from earthy admixture, contain 163 carbonate of soda, 104 sulphate of soda, 75 muriate of soda, and 158 water of crystallization.

LXXVIII. *Striated Soda.* Carbonate of soda, recently crystallized, and exposed to the open air in warm weather, gradually loses its water of crystallization, effloresces, and crumbles into a farinaceous powder. The striated species, however, though produced in the interior parts of Africa, is not liable to this species of decomposition. This apparent anomaly is justly ascribed to a much larger portion of the carbonic acid than exists in the ordinary carbonate, or, as it should rather be termed, *sub-carbonate.* One hundred parts of the striated soda from Tripoli contain, water of crystallization 22.50, carbonic acid 38, pure soda 37, sulphate of soda 2.50; while freshly prepared crystals of the sub-carbonate consist of soda 22, carbonic acid 16, water of crystallization 62.

LXXIX. *Native Muriate of Ammonia* —Native muriate of ammonia, from Mount Vesuvius, was found pure, with the exception of one half *per cent.* of sea-salt; and that from Bokarian Tartary contained $2\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* of sulphate of ammonia.

LXXX. *Sassolin.* The native boracic acid has been so denominated from *Sasso*, in the Siennese territory, where it was discovered by Professor Mascagni. Its constituents are 86 boracic acid, 11 sulphate of manganese, (with a small admixture of iron,) and 3 sulphate of lime.

LXXXI. *Plumose Alum, from Treyenwalde.* The sulphate of alumine, which is spontaneously generated on the aluminous schistus at *Treyenwalde*, in the Margraviate of Brandenburg, is of a greyish white, when fresh, but acquires a dirty yellow coating in the air. It presents aggregates of very fine capillary, and mostly curvilinear fibres. Its constituent parts are, alumine 15.25, oxyde of iron 7.50, pot-ash 0.25, sulphuric acid and water of crystallization 77.

LXXXII. *Capillary Salt from Idria.* The fine capillary filaments and needle-shaped crystals of a silver white colour, and upwards of two inches long, which occur in the fissures of schistus, in the quick silver mines at Idria, and which were long supposed to be plumose alum, are here shewn to be a native sulphate of magnesia, contaminated by a small portion of sulphated iron.

LXXXIII. *Elastic Bitumen from Derbyshire.* This singular substance has been too minutely described by Mr. Hatchett and others in this country, to delay us in our hasty sketch of the contents of these essays. For the present, the learned Professor

fessor acquiesces in Mr. Hatchett's explanation of the elastic property of this species of bitumen.

LXXXIV. *Mellilite.* The results obtained by different chemists, who had submitted this rare fossil to examination, were far from being satisfactory. From the cautious and delicate mode of investigation detailed in these pages, we may now safely infer that the constituent proportions are, a peculiar *vegetable* acid, denominated *mellitic*, 46, alumina 16, water of crystallization 38.—Mellilite, or honey-stone, occurs in the stratum of earthy brown-coal at Artern, in Thuringia. Its colour is usually that of a honey-yellow, more or less bright. It is always crystallized, sometimes in octahedrons, but most frequently in fragments of quadrilateral pyramids. It is soft, brittle, and usually even and shining. Its specific gravity is 1,550. When thrown into nitric acid, it is wholly taken up by this solvent, without heat, and continues clear until the dissolution is accomplished. Hence we have an easy and sure test of genuine mellilite.

LXXXV. *Umbra.* The *umbra* of former mineralogists is a brown pulverulent earth, or coal, the *mumia vegetabilis* of Cronstedt, and *humus umbra* of Wallerius. Genuine umber, on the contrary, which forms the subject of this analysis, belongs to the ores of iron. The specimens employed by the author came from the island of Cyprus, and agreed in external characters with that sort which is sold to the painters, under the appellation of *Fine umber from Turkey.* It consists of oxyde of iron 48, oxyde of manganese 20, silex 13, alumina 5, water 14. This statement differs considerably from that of Santi, who employed the *Castel del Piaro* umbra, and reported, oxyde of iron 53, argillaceous earth 24, silex 19, magnesia 4.

LXXXVI. *Muriated Lead Ore.* The specimen, furnished by Mr. Greville, came from Derbyshire; and it yielded, on analysis, oxyde of lead 85.50, muriatic acid 8.50, carbonic acid, including water of crystallization, perhaps present, 6.

'In the muriate of lead prepared by art, the proportion of the acid amounts to from 13 to 14 *per cent.* But, in the native muriate of lead, the metallic constituent part is not *quite perfectly* saturated with the muriatic acid. This explains how in this last, besides the muriatic, carbonic acid also may be present.'

LXXXVII. *Phosphated Lead Ores.* These were procured from *Zschopau*, *Hoffsgrund* in the Brisgaw, *Huelgoet*, in Brittany, and *Wanlockhead*, in Scotland. The first contains oxyde of lead 78.40, phosphoric acid 18.37, muriatic acid 1.70, oxyde of iron 0.10.—The second, oxyde of lead 77.10, phosphoric acid 19, muriatic acid 1.54, oxyde of iron 0.10.—The third, oxyde of lead 78.58, phosphoric acid 19.73, muriatic acid 1.65.

1.65.—The fourth, oxyde of lead 80, phosphoric acid 18, muriatic acid 1.62.

'The result from the analytical processes, which I have just now described, may contribute towards establishing a more correct classification of lead ores, in *mineralogical systems* grounded on *chemical principles*; at the same time that it sufficiently shews the impropriety of deriving the specific names of fossils from their colours.

'The presence of *muriatic acid* in the phosphated lead ores is indeed remarkable, and it is no less so that, upon the whole, its proportion to the phosphoric acid is constantly the same in these fossils.'

LXXXVIII. *Sulphated Lead Ores.* Sulphate of lead from *Anglesea* gives in the hundred, oxyde of lead 71, sulphuric acid 24.80, water of crystallization 2, oxyde of iron 1.—The tabular sort from *Wanlockhead* consists of oxyde of lead 70.50, sulphuric acid 25.75, water of crystallization 2.25.

LXXXIX. *Tabular White Lead Ore, from Lead Hills* (Scotland). This is a carbonated species, and affords, lead 77, oxygen 5, carbonic acid 16, loss, including the water of crystallization, if any present, 2.

XC. *Native reguline Antimony, from Andréasberg.* The specimen here examined was almost pure, containing only 1 *per cent.* of silver, and one-fourth *per cent.* of iron.

XCI. *Antimoniated Silver, from Andréasberg.* The constituents are 77 of silver, and 23 of metallic antimony, nearly agreeing with a former analysis by Abrich.

XCII. *Fibrous red Antimonial Ore.* It is found at Braimsdorf, in Saxony, is of a cherry red, and forms delicate capillary, or acicular crystals. Its specific gravity is 4.090, and its ingredients are metallic antimony 67.50, oxygen 10.80, sulphur 19.70.

XCIII. *White Ore of Antimony.* This ore was discovered about twenty years ago in the mines of Przibram. It proves to be a pure oxyde of antimony, without any muriatic acid, which it had been formerly supposed to contain.

XCIV. *Arseniated Olive Copper Ore.* The recent descriptions of this substance, by the Count de Bourbon and Mr. Chenevix, in some measure supersede the observations with which we are here presented. Yet the discrepancies of the results, as reported by these practised analysts, is truly remarkable.

XCV. *Muriated Ore of Copper.* This *green sand* from Peru was first analyzed by Berthollet and Proust. It is properly a sub muriat, as it yields only 10.1 of muriatic acid, 16.9 of water of crystallization, and 73 of oxyde of copper.

XCVI. *Phosphated Ore of Copper.* This mineral combination was discovered by the author. It is found not far from Rheinbreidbach, on the Rhine, where it was mistaken for

malachite. One hundred grains of this ore consist of 68.13 oxyde of copper, and 30.95 of phosphoric acid.

XCVII. *Kryolite.* Only a few specimens of this fossil were, some years ago, brought to Copenhagen. Professor Abildgaard, who first analyzed it, discovered that it was composed of fluoric acid and alumina. He shared with our author the solitary portion of it which remained in his possession; and on submitting it to a more rigid examination, M. Klaproth obtained soda 36, alumina 24, fluoric acid, including the water, 40.

XCVIII. *Beryl.* The Professor's analysis does not essentially differ from a preceding report by Vauquelin.

XCIX. *Emerald.* Here we have a confirmation of the ingenious conjecture of Haüy, since verified by Vauquelin, that, from the similarity of the crystals of Beryl and Emerald, glucine probably existed in the latter. The specimen, which the author subjected to trial, was of a very pale green. Its chemical decomposition manifested, silex 68.50, alumina 15.75, glucine 12.50, lime 0.25, oxyde of iron 1, oxyde of chromum 0.30. As Vauquelin obtained no oxyde of iron, he contends that it is not a constituent part of the Emerald.

C. *Klingstone.* Such is the German appellation of a species of *Schistose porphyry*, of secondary trapp formation, which is sonorous, when struck. The details relative to its history and chemical treatment are peculiarly interesting. We shall copy that part of them, which describes the very ingenious expedient of detecting the soda which enters into the composition of this mineral:

'*a*) *Hundred* grains of levigated klingstone were mixed, by trituration, with 400 grains of *crystallized nitrate of barytes*, and in a capacious porcelain vessel exposed first to a moderate, but afterwards to a heat gradually raised to ignition. The mixture entered into a thickish fusion and tumefied. When the intumescence was over and the heat rendered a little more intense, there arose, on uncovering the vessel, from the heavily melting mass some thick, white fumes; which I took for an indication that the soda was beginning to volatilize. For this reason I directly removed the fire.

'*b*) After refrigeration the mass was pale-bluish, porous in the manner of sponge, and easily pulverizable. When drenched with water and treated with *muriatic acid* it dissolved entirely, yielding a clear, yellow fluid. This solution was evaporated in a porcelain dish placed upon a sand bath, and at the same time gradually combined with as much of rectified *sulphuric acid* as was necessary; not only to precipitate the barytic earth in the state of sulphated barytes, but also that the same acid, after the total expulsion of the muriatic, continued notably predominant in the fluid.

'*c*) Having reduced the saline mass to a moderate dryness, I again diffused it in water; separated the sediment, which consisted of the generated

generated sulphate of barytes and the siliceous ingredient in the stone, by means of the filter; and saturated the clear fluid with ammoniac. The precipitate obtained was filtered off, the neutralized liquor evaporated to dryness, and upon this kept, in a porcelain vessel, in a moderately intense heat, until all the sulphate of ammoniac was gone off. The remaining fixed portion, when dissolved in water and crystallized, proved to be *pure sulphate of soda.* This was afresh dissolved, and decomposed with *acetated barytes;* upon which the precipitated barytic sulphate was separated by filtration, the filtered clear fluid evaporated, and the dry acetate of soda heated to redness in a platina crucible. The coaly residue gave, by solution in water and filtration, a clear, colourless lixivium, which upon evaporation to siccity left 14 grains of dry carbonate of soda, in which the portion of *pure soda* makes $8\frac{1}{16}$ grains. This, when neutralized with nitric acid, shooted entirely into rhomboidal crystals of nitrated soda.

'Yet, it may be fairly supposed, that, in the natural composition of klingstone, the soda exists in a somewhat greater proportion than is indicated by the quantity obtained. For, besides that in general some loss is unavoidable in the different operations, I think that already at the ignition of the barytes a certain portion of the soda is volatilized: which to suppose I am induced by the vapours which, as I have mentioned before, visibly escaped in a filamentous form on removing the lid of the vessel.

'After this preliminary remark I now return to the results from the analysis of *klingstone.*—These, then, give its constituent parts and their proportions in the *hundred* as follows:

Silex	II.	a)	57.	25
Alumine		c) . . .	23.	50
Lime		b) 2. 25 } e) 0. 50 }	2.	75
Oxyd of iron		d)	3.	25
Oxyd of manganese . . .		e)	0.	25
Soda	IV.	c)	8.	10
Water	I.	a)	3.	
			98	10

'The reflecting Natural Philosopher will know, without my suggesting it, how to appreciate the value of this discovery of the presence of soda, as a constituent part in a stone which occurs in masses of the size of entire mountains. It opens to him a new view, and leads him a long step farther in his geological inquiries. We now see that there is no longer any occasion for the theory hitherto prevailing, according to which it was imagined necessary to consider all the *soda*, which in nature occurs either in a *free*, that is uncombined, or in the *carbonated state*, as an *educt* arising from a decomposition of rock salt, or of sea-salt, or of that from saline springs, supposed to have been carried on by nature, and to have taken place in an unknown manner.'

The lofty *Donnersberge*, which overtops the middle mountains of Bohemia, is entirely composed of klingstone. 'If we

now reflect (says the author) that, in this enormous mass of rock, the soda constitutes nearly the twelfth part of the whole; I hope it will not be thought an exaggeration to say, that this mountain is alone capable of providing, for a long succession of years *to come*, all Europe with sufficient soda: presupposing, however, that expedients should be devised to separate this alkali from the stone, by a cheap and profitable method.'

CI. *Basalt.* The Professor is decidedly of opinion that basalt is formed in the humid way. That on which he performed his experiments was, apparently, almost homogeneous, though in reality mingled with speckles of hornblende, containing very rarely minute grains of olivin. It was taken from the colossal pillar on the top of the *Hasenberg*, in Bohemia. Its analysis, as here exhibited, approximates to that of Bergman in his dissertation *De Productis Volcanicis*, and to those of the late ingenious and accurate Dr. Kennedy.

CII. *Pitchstone.* One hundred grains of a specimen from Meissen gave, silex 73, alumina 14.50, lime 1, oxyde of iron 1, oxyde of manganese 0.10, soda 1.75, water 8.50.

CIII. *Addition to the Chemical Examination of Pumice-Stone.* To complete his former account of this volcanic product, the author instituted such experiments as led to the detection of three parts in the hundred of soda and pot-ash: but the proportion of each could not be ascertained, on account of the small quantity.

CIV. *Jargon from Norway.* It is remarkable that this fossil should have been found in one of the most northern countries of Europe; and to the mineralogist it is rendered still more valuable, because it is accompanied with its matrix. This last is a coarse-grained stony mass, mixed with reddish feltspar, and black basaltic hornblende, in which the jargon is sparingly imbedded in transparent, light brown, octahedral crystals. From the figure of its primitive integrant particles, the sagacious Haüy first pronounced it to be a jargon; and his opinion is now sanctioned by the following results—jargonia 65, silex 33, oxyde of iron 1.

CV. *Madreporite.* Baron Moll discovered this calcareous stone, some years since, in the valley of *Russbach*, situated in the territory of Salzburg. It occurs on the surface of the vegetable mould, or immediately under it, in rounded lumps, of twenty or thirty pounds weight. It resembles prismatic basalt in miniature, is of a greyish black colour, quite opake, and is hard, brittle, and easily rent. According to a chemical analysis published by the Baron in his *Annals*, one hundred parts of it contain calcareous earth $63\frac{4}{16}$, alumina $10\frac{2}{16}$, silex $12\frac{8}{16}$, iron $10\frac{15}{16}$. The same results, expressed in round numbers, are

are reported by Haüy as the amount of an analysis of madreporite, made in the *Ecole des Mines*, at Paris. Yet Klaproth, after having repeated his trials on the very specimen which was sent to him by Baron Moll himself, still found a very different constitution of parts, viz. carbonate of lime 93, carbonate of magnesia 0.50, carbonate of iron 1.25, carbon 0.50, arenaceous silex 4.50, oxyde of manganese, a trace.

CVI. *Pharmacolite.* This, as M. Selb had conjectured, proves to be an arseniate of lime. The proportions are, arsenic acid 50.54, lime 25, water 24.46.

CVII. *Scorza.* Such is the Wallachian name of a green sand, containing silex 43, alumina 21, lime 14, oxyde of iron 16.50, oxyde of manganese 0.25.

CVIII. *Fibrous Sulphate of Barytes.* As this article is short, and relates to a new variety, we shall give it entire:

'The present fossil, which has been given me as a scarce species of *calamine*, comes from *New-Leiningen*, in the *Palatinate*. I thought it deserving a closer examination; by which I found, that it is not a native oxyd of zinc, but a *sulphate of barytes*. However, it will appear from the description of its external characters drawn up by *Karsten*, that with respect to its external appearance, it differs from the other species of barytes, and that, on this account it ought, in the systematical arrangement of minerals, to be classed under the genus of barytes as a *new* and particular species.

The *fibrous barytes* is,

on the fresh fracture *chesnut-brown*;
has a shape partaking of the *kidney-form*
and *botryoidal*.

Its surface and external lustre not determinable because the fossil seems here to have been impaired by attrition.

Internally, *little shining*, of a *greasy gloss*.

Fracture *coarse fibrous*, the fibres *diverging* in a *feather-like* manner *).

Fragments, indeterminate angular,
of indistinctly detached, thick and coarse-
grained pieces.

Transparent on the edges.

Soft,
heavy.

Its specific gravity I found to be, 4. 080.

'*a*) Before I proceeded to the decomposition of the quantity of this fossil destined for this purpose, I separated, by means of acetic

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'* Such a manner of divergence of fibres I have not met with before; whoever is acquainted with the *plumose-striated surface*, will also know what is understood by the expression, in a *feather-like manner divergingly fibrous*.'

acid, the calcareous earth, which externally stuck in the cavitie formed by the botryoidal shape. *Three hundred* grains of it were powdered, boiled with 600 grains of carbonate of pot-ash and water, evaporated to dryness; again diffused in water, and a second time evaporated. Upon subsequent dilution with water, the earth was separated by the filter and washed. This earth was treated with *muriatic acid*, which dissolved it with effervescence, leaving a residue of 18 grains. A second boiling with pot-ash in the same manner as before, entirely decomposed these 18 grains; and the separated earth now entirely dissolved in muriatic acid. The muriatic solution, evaporated to the point of crystallization, constantly gave muriate of barytes in its usual tabular form.

'*b*) All this muriated barytes was re-dissolved in water; the predominant pot ash of the mentioned alkaline lye, which contained the sulphuric acid of the decomposed fossil, was neutralized with acetic acid, and both fluids mixed. By this management the sulphate of barytes was reproduced. Its weight, after edulcoration and drying, amounted to 297 grains; which agrees with the weight of the fossil employed, except the inconsiderable loss of 1 *per cent.* In the water used for elixiviating this barytic sulphate, a slight trace of iron was made to appear by Prussiate of pot ash.'

CIX. *Tabular Spar.* The *Tafel-spath* of the Germans. It consists of silex 50, lime 45, water 5.

CX. *Miemite.* This mineral substance has its name from *Miemo*, in Tuscany, where Dr. Thomson discovered it in 1791. Its constituents are carbonate of lime 53, carbonate of magnesia 42.50, carbonate of iron, a little magnesiated, 3. Hence it approximates to the nature of the *Tyrolese magnesian spar.*

CXI. *Prismatic Magnesian Spar.* Karsten so denominates a mineral substance which occurs, though rarely, in the cobalt mines at Glücksbrunn, in the territory of Gotha. On analysis, it yields lime 33, magnesia 14.50, oxyde of iron 2.25, carbonic acid 47.50, water 2.75.

CXII. *Striated grey Ore of Manganese, from Ilefeld, and from Moravia.* The different proportions of oxygen gas given out by the two specimens are remarkable, the Ilefeld variety yielding only $2\frac{1}{2}$, and the Moravian $10\frac{1}{4}$. From the former, on repeating the experiments, 7 *per cent.* of water was constantly obtained;—an allowance 'too great to admit of being considered as merely a *hygroscopic* moisture (imbibed from the atmosphere). On this ground it must unquestionably be taken for the water of crystallization in this ore of manganese.'

CXIII. *Earthy black Ore of Manganese.* The ore which forms the subject of this essay was collected some years ago, in the Dorothea mine, in the Hartz. It is found there in the form of a muddy, greasy substance, issuing from the clefts of the rocks: but, on exposure to the air, it soon dries to a very fine black

black powder. The obtained constituents were, brown oxyde of manganese 68, oxyde of iron 6.50, carbon 1, barytes 1, silex 8, water 17.50.—'The increase of weight in this sum, probably depends on this circumstance, that the ignited oxyde of manganese has afterwards combined with a greater proportion of oxygen, than is contained in the natural composition of the crude fossil.'

CXIV. *Asphaltum, from Albania.* This species of bitumen, which forms large strata at *Avlona*, in Albania, is greyish-black, opake, greasy, soft, and light. It is supposed to have been the principal ingredient in the famous *feu Gregois*, or Grecian fire. It is chiefly composed of carbonated hydrogen gas, bituminous oil, carbon, and silex.

CXV. *Earthy-brown Coal.* This is the earthy carbonated wood of Kirwan. Alcohol extracts from it, by digestion, a brown-red tincture, which, on evaporation, leaves a deep brown-red extract, of a bitter taste.

CXVI. *Hungarian Pearl-stone.* Werner, who first ascertained its rank in the systematical arrangement, denominated this fossil *Pearl-stone*, from the granular aspect of its fragments. Professor Klaproth found it to contain silex 75.25, alumina 12, oxyde of iron 1.60, lime 0.50, pot-ash 4.50, water 4.50.

We regret that want of room prevents us from entering more fully into the contents and merits of this unassuming, but truly valuable book; which, in a small compass, comprizes much diversified, accurate, and important information. Each of the analytical treatises, of which we have done little more than announce the titles and the ultimate results, might furnish matter for critical dissertation: but we must be contented to express our *general* approbation, and to applaud the ingenuity, the modesty, and the candour which characterize the performance.

The translator appears to have executed his task with fidelity, and to be well acquainted with the subjects of his author's discussion: but either he is a foreigner, or from other causes he is very little practised in the idioms and niceties of the English language. Thus, he talks of errors of the *feather* (pen), employs *numeros* for *numbers*, *saxa* for *rocks*, *ebullient water* for *boiling water*, *mixed of* for *mixed with*, *shooted* for *shot*, and very gravely informs us how such a fossil *behaves* under the blow-pipe. The members of his sentences are often clumsy, or strangely distorted. *Almost all what hitherto has with certainty been known* is a very aukward mode of expression, especially in the beginning of a paragraph. The following, owing to unnatural inversion, and improper punctuation, is scarcely intelligible: *To a perfectly neutralized, and with water but moderately diluted, muriatic solution of yttria was added Prussian*

alkali. The next is "like unto it." '*On mixing this acid with a solution of acetated barytes, a white, and in nitric acid again soluble precipitate is likewise obtained.*' The expression *hundred grains* will require at least *one hundred grains of allowance.*

We shall be glad to announce the translation of Emmerling's Mineralogy by the same hand, provided that the MS. and proof-sheets be previously submitted to the revision of a competent English friend.

Muir.

ART. IV. *The Professional Life of Mr. Dibdin*, written by himself. Together with the Words of Six hundred Songs selected from his Works, and Sixty small Prints taken from the Subjects of the Songs. And invented, etched, and prepared for the Aqua Tinta by Miss Dibdin. Embellished with a Portrait of Mr. Dibdin. 8vo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. sewed. Longman and Co.

IT has been remarked by Dr. Johnson, that, much as we may lament the ravages of death, "Nobody is missed:" perhaps it may with not less truth be asserted that, while living, No one can draw to himself any extensive and permanent regard. Those individuals of which the great multitude is composed are too closely occupied with their own narrow and selfish pursuits, to think much or long of the interest or fame of others; hence the exertions of merit, as well as the displays of vanity, attract only a transient notice; and appeals to the public, however ingeniously managed, are more frequently a source of mortification than of triumph. Complaining, like begging, is no prepossessing mode of introduction; and he must have better luck than commonly falls to the share of mortals, who obtains respect by detailing his grievances and mortifications. Mr. Dibdin's experience and knowlege of the world should have taught him how soon the generous emotions of our nature are stifled by those of an opposite tendency, and how little genuine social virtue constitutes the cement of what is called Society. He owns indeed that 'he could never comprehend the world as a social system.' As a combination of selfishness, it is easily understood; and the different respect which is paid to the rich and to the poor, to the prosperous and to the unfortunate, sufficiently explains the nature of the friendship of mankind.

Men of genius and creative talents, who have contributed to amuse their fellow-creatures, are apt to suppose that they can arrest the general tide of selfishness in its course, and fix the public attention on their destiny: but, in most attempts of this kind, they over-rate their own consequence, even in the estimation of their admirers; they forget the observation of

Lord Orford, that "the best parts of authors are their works;" and that it does not follow, because they have written to please, that the world is solicitous to learn the ordinary occurrences of their lives. To obviate the charge of vanity and egotism in thus detailing the particulars of his own history, Mr. D. informs us that he has been threatened with a publication, in which the principal events of his professional life were to be exhibited; and which could not be rendered abortive unless he himself stepped forwards and anticipated it. If this measure should prevent calumny and misrepresentation, we congratulate him on its adoption; though it is obvious that he was actuated by another motive than that of pure self-defence. While he exposes 'the tiny vanity which nourished Garrick's inflated mind,' does he not by this publication expose himself to some such charge? We wish to render ample justice to Mr. D.'s genius and industry; and we read with concern of the difficulties which have embarrassed his exertions: but we are of opinion that his sufferings are not sufficiently sublime to interest the public; that his disagreements with managers, proprietors, and music-sellers, however important to himself, scarcely deserve a pompous recitation; and that, resting his professional fame on the merit of his numerous compositions, it would have been wiser to have passed over, in a dignified silence, the obloquy of his enemies, and to have solaced his retirement with that self-commendation which, by his own confession, makes full amends for the censure of the ignorant and the illiberal.

Mr. Dibdin does not enumerate all the circumstances of his life, (and so far he has not furnished a complete piece of biography,) but confines himself for the most part to his professional employments and undertakings; and he has swelled out the publication with numbers of his songs, in the composition of which, as to quantity, and frequently as to quality, he stands unrivalled, and which will be thought by many to constitute the chief excellence of the volumes before us. This indefatigable lyric poet does not tell us when he was born, nor does he afford many dates through the whole of his narrative: but he states that he was the son of a silversmith at Southampton, a man of considerable credit in that city. The following is the account which he gives of his commencement in life:

'Young men thrown upon the world are straws in a torrent, as it hastens to the ocean; some are precipitated to the bottom, others driven out to sea, and others, returned, by the eddy, rest in tranquillity from the general tumult. No young man was ever more completely in this situation than myself; and if by repeated struggles I have at length purchased a little quiet, I have, perhaps, more to thank chance than my own prudence. That I gained the eddy was owing to

to an insatiate thirst for information, which has acted as an impetus on my mind from my infancy, and which could not have been indulged had I sailed down the strong current of life.

'Impulsive, however, as this desire of knowledge was, I never could do more than one thing at a time, and that is the reason, perhaps, that I have done so much. Music was my supreme delight; it possessed and engrossed me, nor would my mind admit of any thing else, at least materially, till I had fully accomplished all that I found necessary for my purpose; and thus it happened that, though my father intended me for the church, and I suffered the common imposition of what is usually called education, it was rather like something laid by for future, than intended for immediate use. My darling passion for music was also fed fortuitously. I had, when a boy, a remarkable good voice; and therefore, I not only cut a great figure at the college and the cathedral, at Winchester, where I sung anthems, but the concert rooms, at the races and the assizes, echoed with my vocal fame.

'A weekly subscription concert was in great measure on this account established, at which the instrumental performers were principally clergymen, as well as the subscribers, which latter were of the dignified kind. Dr. Eden, the archdeacon, a man of great suavity, and most winning manners, and whose kindness and advice to me, though I was then but twelve years old, I shall never forget; Dr. Hoadley, the chancellor, of whom I have spoken in the history of the stage, whose beneficence dignified him a thousand times more than his situation or his being the son of a bishop: these, and many other gentlemen, among whom were the Biddulphs, Mr. Cornwall, afterwards speaker of the House of Commons, Colonel Cæsar, and a long list of residents in the vicinity of Winchester, were among the number of the subscribers.

'Mr. Ashe, Madge Cotton, the brother of him who travestied Virgil, and a list of other beneficed clergymen in the neighbourhood, composed the band, and I was the principal singer. Being thus employed, and banded about at the houses of almost all the prebends in the close, and now and then stolen away by the officers at the camp, I had but little leisure, and indeed inclination, to make any thing but music my study; and, if I had not been rejected on account of my youth, when I put up for an organist's place at Waltham, in Hampshire, it is not impossible but I should have been obliged to content myself with thirty pounds a year, an annual concert, and snacking my profits, as a teacher, with the governess of a country boarding-school.

'While I was inquiring for another vacancy, my brother, a very celebrated seaman, the particulars of whose life I have faithfully recounted, under the name of Captain Higgins, in my novel of "Hannah Hewet," gave me a most hearty invitation to London, and assured me he could certainly provide for me to my entire satisfaction. My fortune was now made, as it has been since very frequently, in idea. To town I came; visited all the churches; fell in love with extempore playing; soon learned to handle *Moll Peatley*, *Bobbin Joan*, and *Lilaballero*, in a voluntary; and, little as such a circumstance may be suspected of me, by favour of a deputy-organist, I often played the congregation

gregation out of church, at St. Bride's, before I was sixteen years old.'

A man of Mr. Dibdin's musical talents and fertile invention soon found his way to the theatres; he breakfasted with Beard, dined with Rich, and hence began his dramatical career. It will not be required of us to follow him in his account of his engagements and disagreements with Mr. Garrick, and afterward with Mr. Harris the manager of Covent-Garden; to enter into the particulars of his planning the Circus at Blackfriar's Bridge, and subsequently quarrelling with Hughes and Grimaldi; to attend him to Exeter-Change, the Lyceum, and Leicester-square, where he stood alone without the aid or embarrassment of partnership; to pursue him in his country excursions, in which he bitterly complains of the difficulties and rebuffs which he sustained on being considered as an impostor, or as the personator of himself, and not the real Mr. Dibdin; or at last to trace him to a music-shop. It will be sufficient thus to hint at the leading passages of his life, which has not been of the most prosperous nature; for he remarks it as 'a curious trait in his fortune, that he has met with men whose minds were full of depravity, and who were alike strangers to justice and humanity.'

If, however, Mr. D. has been unfortunate, he has not been idle. 'I have written,' says he, 'in the course of my life, exclusive of my entertainments of Sans Souci, nearly seventy dramatic pieces, of different descriptions, besides having set to music fifteen or sixteen, the productions of other writers. In the whole of those which I have invented and brought forward, are included more than nine hundred songs, a number, I should imagine, not again to be found in the English language.'

In the third volume, Mr. D. explains himself on the subject of his industry and rapid composition:

'Though the songs which I have written and composed have amounted to a number so far beyond credibility, that the fact could not be believed but for the chapter and verse proof of it given in this narrative, yet they have employed, comparatively, a very small portion of my time. The same impulse that inspired the words, has generally given birth to the music, and those that are the most celebrated, have been produced with the least trouble. I begun and completed The Sailor's Journal in half an hour; and I could mention, perhaps, thirty very prominent songs, that did not take in the writing and composing more than three quarters of an hour each.

'Upon this mode of calculation, giving the most extensive allowance of time for those songs, which from the nature of their subjects, and manner of treating them, required longer consideration, a circumstance, by the way, that always incurs the risk of coldness and formality, no one of my entertainments has taken me more than a month in

in perfecting it; and, therefore, as I have already mentioned that I do something every day, the mystery will be easily solved how I have fabricated so much; which fact, as it has been generally considered to consist of more than any one man could accomplish, has generated the idea that, like eminent engravers, I permit my name to what does not belong to me.'

Of the numerous songs which have flowed with such rapidity from Mr. Dibdin's facetious pericranium, we shall record two or three specimens:

'BALLAD.

I.

'At a jovial meeting of gods once on high,
Ere Bacchus was hatch'd from old Jupiter's thigh,
This one told his story, and that sung his song,
And did what he could lest the time should seem long.

Apollo read verses, the Graces wreath'd flowers,
The Muses of harmony sung forth the powers.
Bully Mars crack'd his joke, and sly Momus his jest;
Yet their mirth wanted someting to give it a zest.

II.

'Says Jove, our assembly to day's pretty full,
Yet, I don't know how 'tis, we are horridly dull;
We have all the ingredients that mirth should inspire.
But some clay-born alloy damps our heavenly fire.

I have it—in this I'll a mixture inclose
Of all the delights whence good fellowship flows,
And we'll taste of its produce, for mirth's bad at best
When there's any thing wanting to give it a zest.

III.

'So saying, so doing, he buried the shrine,
Which quickly sprung up in the form of a vine,
The leaves broad and verdant, the fruit deepest blue,
Whence a juice flow'd that health, love, or youth might renew.

Its influence to feel, they came round it in swarms;
Mars took draughts of courage, and Venus drank charms;
Momus swallow'd bon mots, Cupid love—so the rest,
While Jove, spurning nectar, cry'd—'This is the zest.'

'BALLAD.

I.

'Be it known to all those whomsoe'r it regards,
That we singers of ballads were always call'd bards;
And from Ida to Grub street the muses who follow
Are each mother's son the true spawn of Apollo.

Thus

Thus recording great men, or a flea, or a star,
Or the spheres, or a jew's harp, we're all on a par;
Nor in this do I tell you a word of a lie,
For Homer sung ballads and so do I.

II.

'Don't you know what the ancients were?—great things they talk'd,
How they rode upon Pegasus—that's to say, walk'd—
That near kindred gods they drove Phœbus's chariot,
The English of which is—they liv'd in a garret.

And thus they went forward, Diogenes quaff'd,
Heraclitus cried, and Democritus laugh'd,
Menander made multitudes both laugh and cry,
But Homer sung ballads and so do I.

III.

'Thus did they strange whimsical notions pursue,
Some argued on one leg, and some upon two,
To which last my pretensions are not hypothetic,
For it is certainly clear I'm a peripatetic.

Lycurgus and Solon 'bout laws made a pother.
Which went in at one ear, and then out at t'other,
Old songs, such as mine are, will nobody buy?
Come, Homer sung ballads and so do I.

IV.

'Historic was Pliny, and Plato divine,
Ovid wrote about love, and Anacreon wine,
Great Cicero argued to every man's palate,
And when he was out—'twas a hole in the ballad.

Thus to great men of old, who have made such a rout,
My claim to call cousin I've fairly made out,
And if any hereafter my right should deny,
Tell 'em Homer sung ballads and so do I.'

So many of the most attractive of Mr. Dibdin's compositions, and especially his sea-songs, have become generally known, that we must not indulge ourselves in copying them. Though these sea-songs have been so numerous, he complains that they have not procured him a single public compliment from the Navy, and that his place of performance has not been chosen as the scene of any acclamation for naval victories.—It would have afforded us real satisfaction to have found the scene of Mr. D.'s fortune brighten towards the conclusion of his work: but, though he takes his leave of the reader satisfied with the review of the past, he does not yet appear to have obtained a comfortable independence for the future:

'I have

'I have now brought up to this present hour the most material circumstances of my professional life. I believe it will be unnecessary to say, that I have neither exaggerated nor extenuated in any one instance; and had I penetrated the mind of any other man, I am truly conscious, that I could not have delineated the motives of his conduct with more fidelity and impartiality than I have my own. As to envy and rancour, if I am acquainted with myself at all, I am a total stranger to any such passions. I know too well the comfort of content to enter the lists as a disputant upon any subject, and I should not have volunteered myself at all in the present instance, were it not that, as the world seem to know but little of either my pretensions or my character, I conceived it a fair thing to bare the truth to view, rather than be subject to a refutation of falsity, or an explanation of misconception.

'In speaking of myself I have used no ceremony, nor resorted to any subterfuge or reserve. In speaking of others, I have barely taken sufficient facts to bear out my charge, and have disdained either to feel or manifest any thing harsh and invidious. Upon the whole, I think my reputation will suffer in no respect from this publication; which, whatever it may be in point of value, really without being *facetious,* exceeds considerably in point of quantity, for the money, any thing that ever was produced; for, only reckoning the songs at a halfpenny a piece, and the prints at three-pence, the narrative and the portrait are given in, as the market-people call it, by way of a blessing.

'As to my future prospects, sincerely as I wish to have done with the world and its bustle, I am afraid I shall not find complete retirement so easy to accomplish as my hopes had flattered me; not, however, from any other want of means than the possession of a large stock, and the necessity of refreshing it with novelty to preserve it in some degree from stagnation. Whatever course I may find it expedient to take, I think I may venture to pronounce that, in spite of human frailty, I shall never swerve, either publicy or privately, from that independency of mind that I have made it my pride and happiness to adopt, adhering to the sentiments of my own song which I wrote when I was in possession of fewer worldly comforts;

'Happy in honours, power, and wealth,
If fate but grant my fond desire;
A blameless heart, unshaken health,
My friends, my bottle, and my lyre.'

According to Mr. D.'s statement, the four volumes containing his professional life form a cheap publication, and we hope that the sons of mirth and glee will justify his calculation. Several inaccuracies occur, which will be apparent to discerning readers.

Mo-y.

ART. V. *An Historical Review of the State of Ireland*, from the Invasion of that Country under Henry II. to its Union with Great Britain on the 1st of January 1801. By Francis Plowden, Esq. 4to. 2 large Volumes. (Vol. I. in Two Parts.) 4l. 4s. Boards. Egerton. 1803.

ART. VI. *A Postliminious Preface to the Historical Review of the State of Ireland*, by Francis Plowden, Esq., containing a Statement of the Author's Communications with the Right Hon. Henry Addington, and some of his Colleagues, on the Subject of that Work; some Observations on Lord Redesdale's Letters to the Earl of Fingall, &c. 4to. 3s. Carpenter. 1804.

IT happened that, conspicuous as is the magnitude of this work, our attention was not directed towards it at the time of its appearance; and we cannot now regret the delay, since we have consequently been enabled to peruse in connection with it the preface which has subsequently appeared under the *Jus Postliminii*, and which now claims its natural station, and demands our notice in the first place. We shall find that its contents are peculiarly interesting.

The author seems to have been strongly impressed with the idea that the measures and declarations of the party known by the name of the *Orange-men* were highly injurious to the interests of Ireland; that the ascendancy of this faction was employed to extend and foster aversion from the union, and to keep alive and inflame those political and religious animosities which it was so desirable to allay. This conviction, we are told, induced him, in the year 1801, to request an interview with the then Premier, Mr. Addington, which he was fortunate enough to obtain. On this occasion, Mr. Plowden submitted to the Minister,

'That the calumny, traduction, and misrepresentation, under which the bulk of the Irish laboured, was a national grievance; that nothing could tend more powerfully to excite and promote rebellion, than to hold out, consider, and deal with them as with incorrigible rebels by disposition, principle, and religion: that the evil was increased by the countenance and forced circulation given to Sir R. Musgrave's Memoirs of the Irish Rebellions; a work so false, inflammatory, and malignant, that Lord Cornwallis had been forced publicly to disclaim the dedication of it: that the Irish nation was pre-eminently fond of historical justice, and felt more sensibly than any other people the deprivation of it: that it therefore had become an object of national importance, that a fair, impartial, and authentic history of that country should be written to counteract the effects of Sir R. Musgrave's and such other *Orange* publications, in order to reconcile the public mind in Ireland to the measure of union. That the Premier might be put into the full possession of the author's sentiments upon the state of Ireland, he delivered to him a copy of the letter and paper

paper written twelve years before, and then presented to Mr. Pitt, and took the liberty of desiring that they might be kept by him as a test of his sentiments, and a pledge of his fidelity in executing the commission, which he then received of writing an impartial and authentic history of Ireland, to shew the utility, and reconcile the Irish mind to the prospective advantages of the union. When on this occasion the author's proposal was acceded to by the Minister, a gracious remark accompanied that accession, that he was happy in employing the author's talents in an undertaking of so much utility to the public; and when reference was made to the observations of the Member of Parliament before noticed upon the unpopularity of the union, Mr. Addington observed, that *he feared that feeling was but too general in Ireland.* The author having consented to take the work in hand, and to go over to Ireland during the vacation, to procure materials and information, the Premier remarked, that the only remaining consideration was, to settle what compensation the author should be allowed for his time and trouble in going over to Ireland.'

The terms were adjusted, and the voluminous work before us is the result of the undertaking.

From the whole of the Preface, we collect that Mr. Addington is no mean adept in the language which is generally supposed to be appropriate to a statesman. The treaty above disclosed, which was formed by that Premier on the one part, and by Mr. Plowden on the other, exceedingly resembles in its course and in its consequences, another and more famed compact to which the same Minister was a party. The Preliminaries are well received, and cordially ratified by the Premier: but, when he is required to carry into execution some of the articles, he raises a controversy as to the terms. The Historical Reviewer is, it seems, a catholic. Mr. Addington, dissatisfied with the result of the negotiation, and strongly censuring his own conduct, justly blames himself for not having foreseen that Mr. Plowden would be favourable to the emancipation of his particular church; and vainly regrets that he did not embrace the fair proposal which the author made to him, of having his work inspected by some confidential friend of the Premier before it was committed to the press. In his conversations with Mr. Plowden, the Minister explicitly stated that he owed his high station to his opposition to Catholic Emancipation; and he positively told him that it was a point from which he never would be moved. The dialogue at one of the interviews is very important; since it shews that Mr. Addington is pledged for life with regard to some matters of great moment, and exhibits to us his views of certain characters and measures which have been much the objects of public attention. Alluding to the question of Catholic Emancipation, Mr. Addington remarked,

'That

'That he repented not having sooner reflected what must have been the author's sentiments upon this question, *by the resistance of which he stood in that house*, and which he should ever continue to oppose till his latest breath; and he added, that the author knowing, as he must have known, his (the Minister's) sentiments upon this subject, ought from the nature of his employment, to have paid peculiar deference to them in his History. The author admitted, that he was in part aware of his *public* opinion upon the question of *Catholic emancipation*, and being himself a Catholic, he had scrupulously refrained from making a single observation of his own upon that subject in the History; adhering to the strictest duty of the annalist in the faithful narration of what others had said and done upon it. *That*, replied Mr. Addington, *might be more effectual than any thing of your own.* The author would not dissemble, that whilst he was writing, he so conceived it would be. The Minister manifested more than ordinary astonishment, apparently not unmixed with anger, when the author informed him, that he had given in a note to his History the papers put into the hands of Earl Fingall, and Dr. Troy, by Mr. Pitt, and Marquis Cornwallis, respecting their going out of office upon their inability to carry the Catholic question. The author met the rising displeasure of the Premier by submitting to him the utter impossibility of suppressing documents of such consequence, which manifested to the nation, or rather to the whole British empire (they are not slightly affected by the change) the grounds, upon which Mr. Pitt and his friends retired from office; consequently of those, upon which his successors came in. In the course of this interview Mr. Addington very distinctly, and very forcibly, thrice intimated to the author, that by his pledged resistance to this question of Catholic emancipation, he had come into and continued *in that house.* The author presuming, that his Majesty had other motives for promoting him to that important station, took the liberty of expressing his hopes, that he was not inexorable in that opposition; he replied, he was not to be moved from it.

'Another topic of conversation at this interview was far from being unimportant to the public. The primary object of the author's commission was to convert the truth of Irish history into evidence of the utility and advantages of incorporate union; it was but therefore consistent, that the historian should, as far as truth would bear him out, commend the system of Marquis Cornwallis's government of that country. The commendation of that humane, just, and firm governor became indirect censure upon the opposite system of government pursued by his immediate predecessor; and the author submitted to the Premier, that he did not conceive he could do more honour to Earl Camden, than to say of him what the Earl of Clare avowed in the Irish Lords in January 1798, that the system of coercion was extorted from him; and as it was evident that this system had diffused a wide and deep sense of soreness and disaffection throughout the country, it became the duty of the historian to remove the odium of those measures, as far as truth would allow, from the door of the British cabinet. He had therefore thrown it where it immediately rested, upon a certain triumvirate, who then monopolized the political power of

that country. They have since been chiefly removed from it, by the hand of God or the power of the executive. The author was here sharply interrogated, whether he could for an instant presume it to have been the Minister's wish or intention, that a syllable should have dropped from the author's pen to the disparagement of the respectable names of *Clare*, *Foster*, and *Beresford*. He scouted the idea of any difference of principle or system in the two governments of Earl Camden and Marquis Cornwallis. It was an identity of spirit and principle applicable to the varying circumstances, of a rising, raging, and expiring rebellion. Mr. Addington very significantly assured the author, that he knew not the grounds, views, or motives, of Lord Cornwallis's actions. This the author admitted the possibility of; he could not however presume, that in so manly, humane, just, and noble a character, there lurked in the back ground any views or motives impervious to the observation of every candid by stander; and he asserted with more than ordinary firmness, that he had notwithstanding, reason for insisting, that his Lordship's *sentiments with regard to Ireland were well known by the measures he pursued and those which he recommended**.'

In the controversy which sprung from another treaty of the late Premier, most men were agreed that the case which he made out was very lame, though many were of opinion that he did not want materials to furnish one which would have been above all exceptions; and on the statements of the parties, there were not a few who thought that the judgment must go against the Minister of Great Britain, whatever the result might have been on a full sifting of all the matters in dispute. The circumstances are very much the same in the negociation of which an account is here given. The Minister admits his own want of foresight, and seems to have entertained unreasonable expectations of conformity to his views on the part of Mr. Plowden. This appears when he reproaches the author for favouring the Catholic claims; when he blames him for disparaging "the respectable names of Clare, Foster, and Beresford;" and when he upbraids him for distinguishing between two late Irish administrations, and for unreasonably extolling one of them. To all this, Mr. Plowden replies that he had violated no express stipulation; that an engagement by an honourable person to write a history is an engagement to write a *true* one; that to expect a man to oppose the just rights of the members of his own communion, is to suppose him to be the lowest and basest of mankind; that to imagine that, in opposition to facts, he will extol characters and pass over delinquencies, or that he will impugn councils and measures that

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'* The author had at that time in his pocket a letter from the Marquis, containing those words, which however he did not shew to the Minister.'

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are admired for their wisdom and benevolence, is to consider him as indifferent to truth and falsehood, careless of right and wrong, destitute of every feeling of honour, insensible to the odium in which the falsifier of history is held, and regardless of the oblivion into which disingenuous narratives are sure very speedily to fall. Of this kind are the answers which the remonstrances of the Minister call forth; and there are few, we apprehend, who will not range on the side of the defence. If Mr. Addington wished Mr. Plowden to act the part of Tuceius, he ought, like the Roman Orator, to have given him explicit instructions. In regard to one of the Minister's observations, may it not be asked, Was there ever a man in Ireland of either party, that did not regard the two governments which immediately preceded the union as not less distinguishable than light and darkness? What stranger to Irish passions has not had his feelings shocked by invectives against the "misplaced and ill-judged clemency" of a Cornwallis? Have we not read and heard enough of tortures preceding the rebellion, and of most inhuman excesses succeeding it, before the arrival of that noble person, and even after it; he being unable at once to establish the mild system which did so much credit to his wisdom, to his magnanimity, and to his humanity? We would as soon believe with Mr. Plowden all the tenets of the Catholic church, as subscribe to Mr. Addington's doctrine of the identity of spirit and principles of the Camden and Cornwallis administrations.—It may be said, it does not appear that the Premier was at all adverse to the administration of Lord Cornwallis, the sound policy and enlightened humanity of which were admired by all Europe: but what is Mr. Plowden's account of the matter? He tells us that Mr. Addington *very significantly* assured the author that he knew not the grounds, views, or motives of Lord Cornwallis's actions, in a conversation which referred to the noble Lord's government of Ireland. Can any one doubt that disapprobation, even dropping the *very significantly* of the narrator, is here clearly intimated by the Minister?—We do not think that Mr. Addington appears to more advantage in this petty *fracas*, than he did in another and greater rupture to which he was accessory. We are indeed convinced that, however pacific may be his temper, and however well disposed his turn of mind, he is deficient in some of the most essential qualifications of a negociator.

If, however, we cannot sympathize with the complaints of Mr. Addington, nor impute as offences to Mr. Plowden the countenance which he gives to Catholic Emancipation, the free manner in which he treats certain public characters, the praise which he bestows on the Cornwallis government, and

the blame which he ascribes to others that preceded it, yet we are far from asserting that the manner in which he has executed his task is unexceptionable. Had he never deviated from the track of an impartial narrator, we should have deemed him intitled to high commendation: but if he could descend from this lofty and proud ground to occupy that of an advocate, we cannot help thinking that, in that character, he was required to consult the inclinations, interests, and predilections of the clients who had retained him, whatever might have been his own partialities. Had the sacredness of truth prevented him from doing this, we should have applauded his elevation of mind and his integrity: but the matter does not stand thus, for if he be not the advocate of Great Britain and of the Minister, it is impossible to deny that he is the open apologist and zealous partizan of Irish and Catholic prejudices. In the early part of his work, he adopts the fabulous tales of antient Hibernia, and sanctions their currency in a manner that obliges us to impute to him a blind credulity, if we acquit him of gross disingenuousness. He decides on dubious points on very scanty evidence; he makes representations which are contradictory to facts related by himself; and he occasionally adopts a style which cannot be pleasing to the bulk of his readers: while his principles also (we believe, without his being conscious of it,) are made to shift as the exigency of the case requires. When stating the conversion of the Irish by St. Patrick, why was it necessary to declare that the religion which he taught was that which is professed by the Catholics at this day; and that it was also the genuine religion of Christ? Let all this have been so, why mix this dogmatism with historical narrative? not only is this unhandsome, but we do not hesitate to say that it is unfair towards his Protestant employers. The facts, however, are far from being such as he states them to be. No one conversant with ecclesiastical history will deny that the constitution of the Roman hierarchy has been materially changed since the days of St. Patrick, and that some important articles of the Romish creed have received ecumenical sanction since that period. Then what a *petitio principii* is the proposition, that the religion of Rome, in the time of Pope Celestine, was the same with that which was taught by Christ and his apostles? —We shall substantiate our other charges as the occasions present themselves in our survey of the work.

Mr. O'Halloran had so thoroughly fatigued us with empty accounts of Milesian kings *, that we were not a little terrified to meet with them again in the early pages of this voluminous

* See Review for January last, p. 75.

history: but, thanks to Mr. Plowden, though he is very respectful to these royal shades, he does not long detain them. He sanctions, however, all the tales of credulous antiquaries with respect to the profound policy, the wise administration, and the flourishing state of commerce, arts, and sciences, under the descendants of Milesius. His motive for entering on this remote chapter of Irish history is stated to be, a desire to convince Britons that the nation with which they have coalesced is worthy of the alliance. Laying the premises out of our consideration, we can assure Mr. P. that we as fully admit his conclusion as he does himself. Without faith in the reign of Milesius,—with no belief in the partition of Ireland by his three sons Heber, Eremon, and Ith,—questioning the existence of the Triennial Parliaments of Tarah,—regarding as fabulous the marvellous reign of Ollamh Fodhla, and the other tales so reverentially mentioned by Mr. P.,—we are not less convinced than he is of the excellent qualities of our neighbours, and of their fitness in every respect to enter into the close relation which now binds them to the inhabitants of this island.

In the author's review of what we consider as the authentic history of Ireland, the very able speech of Lord Clare on the union seems to have been his guide; and certainly a better general chart, in his long and tedious voyage, is hardly to be obtained: if we except, indeed, the part of it which relates to very recent times, and by which it must be owned Mr. Plowden is duly anxious not to be misled.

The succeeding brief passage shews the relation in which the two countries stood to one another, previously to the reign of Elizabeth:

'Notwithstanding the nominal or pretended conquest of the whole kingdom of Ireland by Henry II. and the grant and confirmation thereof by the Popes Adrian and Alexander, the truth is, that the English power and authority during the reign of Henry II. was confined (and it so continued for above 400 years) to a certain district afterwards called the *Pale*. This comprized the counties of Dublin, Kildare, Meath, and Uriel, with the cities of Waterford, Cork, and Limerick, and the lands immediately surrounding them. Over the other parts of the kingdom, which were without the Pale, neither Henry II. nor any of his successors, until the reign of James I, either had or even pretended to claim more than a naked sovereignty, marked by nothing else than a formal homage, an inconsiderable tribute and an empty title.'

Mr. Plowden's view of the conduct of Elizabeth, and of her predecessors, strongly points out its ill policy, and the mischiefs which were the consequences of it. The maxims on

which Britain acted were narrow, ill judged, and oppressive; and unhappily the like description is applicable to the behaviour of this country, up to the period of carrying the measure, of which Mr. Plowden is the advocate and panegyrist.

When we come to the reign of James I., Mr. P. represents the introduction of new inhabitants into Ulster, which had been depopulated during the war of Elizabeth, in a manner of which we think not only his employers have a right to complain, but which all impartial men must disapprove, and every good subject must condemn. Considering the matter on a large scale, we cannot for a moment doubt that it was salutary to Ireland. To plant by the side of an inactive untutored people, a class of industrious and civilized individuals, we conceive to have been a measure highly calculated to accelerate the improvement of the country. It would no doubt awaken temporary jealousies, but it has been the fault of subsequent governments that these have not been long extinguished, and that the arrangement is not known at this day solely by its vast advantages to the sister island. We are far from denying that Great Britain has been guilty of much injustice in its treatment of Ireland: but still, if the connection has proved less beneficial than it might have been, has not this been owing to the ignorance of the times, to the misrepresentations of a few interested base men, Irish as well as English, and to the unhappy differences in regard to religion? Has not Ireland shared in the distinctions and renown of the first people in the world;—have not her sons been allowed to give lu tre to our senate, dignity to our church, and most materially to add to the fame of our arms for gallantry and heroism? Would our fellow subjects have been better circumstanced, had they fallen into the hands of France, or of Spain? While we fairly confess the injuries which we have heretofore done to the sister-country, (more through ignorance than wilfulness,) let it not be denied us to call to recollection the advantages of which the connection has been productive; since also we have every reason to hope that future history will have only benefits to record. The good effects of the intercourse are reciprocal; and enlightened Britons will feel no disposition to disparage them, but every inclination cheerfully to acknowlege and magnify them. To say nothing of the countenance and other more solid favours of the government which the author enjoyed, we think that this is the view of things which, as a British subject, and a friend of both countries, he ought to have taken: a view in which Britain would have stood in a fairer light in his pages. We fully acquit him of the most remote intention to create ill blood, or to keep up a coolness between the two

people; and if this be occasionally the effect of his narrative, we are persuaded that it was not perceived by him, but arose out of the zeal for his communion, which never deserts him: for if he disdains to be the advocate of Ministers, and of his country, he most assuredly is, on all occasions, the invariable apologist of the religious body to which he belongs.

The zeal and predilection, to which we have now alluded, are eminently visible in Mr. P.'s manner of treating the events which have been called the Popish Massacre, and the grand Irish rebellion: indeed these topics have carried him lengths of which we are confident he is not himself aware. Is it for any man at this day to attempt to palliate or extenuate the dreadful manner in which that insurrection commenced? 'I wish,' says he, 'to draw an impervious veil over every scene of blood and horror which defiled the actors, as well as over the imaginary fictions and exaggerations which have disgraced most of our historical relations of these transactions.' What! are the actual butcheries to be placed on a level with the exaggerations which are inevitable on such occasions? Whence has an historian his licence to pass over transactions which shock the feelings of the humane? It is his most bounden duty to set them forth in all their magnitude, and in their true colour; to assign the causes from which they originated, to record the designs which they were intended to promote, and to exhibit the passions, sentiments, and habits, which rendered human beings capable of bearing a part in so horrible a drama. Such events are replete with lessons of instruction; and to inculcate them is eminently the province of a work like the present, which, by its very title, claims a relaxation from the severity of history. It would, we think, have well become a Catholic, substantially countenanced in his labours by a Protestant government, to have entered into a minute detail of these enormities. Let him, if he pleased, have exposed the errors, oppressions, and persecutions which drew on the sufferers a vengeance so disproportionate: but let him also have anatomized the foul passions which set in motion the fiends of destruction; let him ascribe to national hate, to bigotry, to savage manners, and to real grievances, each its proper share in bringing on this dreadful storm; and let him have calculated the degree in which each of these causes operated! He might have taken occasion to shew that, though intolerance was for centuries the avowed tenet of the see of Rome, the constant theme of its schools, and the practice of its most eminent and even canonized disciples; though its communion has been stained by crusades, massacres, and endless bloodshed; yet that this sanguinary policy is not essential to the catholic hierarchy,

and has no necessary connection with the spiritual authority claimed by the Pope, nor with the doctrines, institutions, and rites of that church. This would have been a fit occasion for exposing the mischief of intolerance and persecution; and for exhorting the prelates and clergy of his communion, to eradicate from their flocks every relic of this infernal temper. Recent experience proves that such hints and exhortations would not have been unseasonable.—If we are friends to a liberal and enlarged policy in government, and if we recommend it to our rulers to admit our catholic brethren to a participation of all civil and political rights, we not less inculcate it on the enlightened professors of that religion to banish from among them the spirit of persecution, and every species of intolerance. We should be glad to learn that the Romish pastors were sedulous and active in exhorting their people to cherish sentiments of christian charity and forbearance. Without making religion chargeable with the late rebellion, it is not too much to say that the savage and murderous bigotry displayed in the course of it implicates the Romish priests in a very blameable remissness with regard to this part of their duty.

It is with concern that we find this author making every effort to represent a confederacy which had an origin so foul as that of the conspirators of 1641, and which was stained with the blood of the weak and defenceless, as taking up arms in the cause of royalty. We hardly know how to account for his assigning a subsequent pretence of the insurgents, as the original motive of the insurrection. Had he displayed industry and acuteness in reducing the facts to their proper size,—had he drawn the line between truth and exaggeration,—and had he, while he related the dreadful vengeance, ascertained the degree of the provocation,—we should have cheerfully acknowleged the obligations under which he had laid the public: but he found it to be a more easy task to display the zeal of a partisan, to practise the arts of a sophist, to jumble facts and conjectures together, without regard to time and place, and to perplex us by the confusion of his narrative.

The flippant remarks of Mr. Plowden on the conduct of Charles II., at his restoration, betray either ignorance scarcely credible, or invincible prejudice. Not to lay stress on the reason given by Lord Clare for the protection extended to Cromwell's soldiers, it is well known that indulgence and favour to the opponents of his family were, in his situation, less matters of choice than of necessity. It was to them that he owed the recovery of his crown; and his ability to retain it is problematical, had he not secured them in their possessions.

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In this part of his work, Mr. Plowden disgusts his readers by the constant recurrence and unwarrantable use of the terms rebels and regicides. He cannot be ignorant that the latter title is no more applicable to those wise and patriotic individuals who began the opposition to Charles I., than it is to the historian himself; and he ought to know that the leading characters, and the great bulk of the people of this country, do not designate the same parties as rebels,—that they do not brand with infamy their opposition to the measures of a weak and arbitrary court;—and that however they may lament the fatal issue of the contest, they are not accustomed to speak in opprobrious language of those who sealed with their blood their attachment to the privileges and rights of Britons. The term regicides belongs only to Cromwell and his officers and creatures; it is a most gross calumny to apply it to the first opponents of Charles, or to the Presbyterians who next obtained the ascendancy; and it can properly be fixed on a very small party, who had the address ultimately to get the army into their management. It is a species of infatuation to represent, as this author does, the Irish insurgents of 1641 as meritorious persons; and to describe as rebels and traitors all those who stood up for their liberties and constitutional rights, in opposition to the tyrannical ministers and iniquitous tribunals of Charles I. This practice will not recommend either the writer or his cause to those persons whom, on other occasions, he extols, and whose good opinion he appears to desire.

Mr. Plowden by no means states the matter fairly with regard to Ireland under James II.: but our limits will not allow us to animadvert on his representation of facts, nor on his conclusions. The circumstances of that country, at that time, however, sufficiently shew the imperfect nature of the connection between the two kingdoms, and speak strongly in favour of some such measure as that which has been lately adopted.

We now come to the Revolution; from which period, Mr. Plowden, assuming more just principles, and following more able guides, presents undeniable claims to attention. Though he is not happy in method, and has done little towards digesting his matter, still the view which he gives of his subject is correct, and his account of the several Irish governments is for the most part satisfactory. He also very properly inveighs against the violation of the articles of Limerick.

The author next adverts to the spirit of independence which manifested itself in the Parliament of Ireland at an early period. He takes notice of the high-toned reprehension of the Lord Lieutenant on the occasion, and descants on the work of Mr. Molyneux,

Molyneux, and the resentment which it excited in the British House of Commons.

Mr. Plowden justly remarks that the intolerance towards catholics, which takes its date from the reign of William, is by no means to be laid to the charge of that prince, but to the jealousy of the Irish Protestants, and to the party in England which thwarted that monarch's views in so many other instances.

Much praise is here bestowed on the catholics for their loyal and dutiful behaviour, from the period of the revolution. We feel no desire to depreciate the claims of that body: but it seems probable that this conduct was more the effect of necessity than of election. Their ready submission to the tyrannical laws in restraint of their rights, since that time, shews that they were without credit, influence, and power; and that they were convinced, whatever their inclinations may have been, that every struggle on their part would only serve to deteriorate their already dismal situation. That they had contracted an antipathy towards the Stuarts would have been in no degree strange: but that they should feel much affection, previously to the present reign, towards the family on the throne, would indeed be surprizing; since, however auspicious its accession proved to its protestant subjects, it had only been known to the catholics by an accumulation of harsh and galling restrictions.

Mr. Plowden shews that the grievous disturbances occasioned by the White Boys arose out of distress and oppression, and had no relation either to religion or politics. This also is admitted by Lord Clare. The conduct of certain protestants on the occasion is to the last degree base and detestable: since in order to render the catholics obnoxious, they were accused of prostituting the forms of law for the purpose of shedding innocent blood; and it is impossible to read the account given by Mr. P., of the proceedings instituted against Sheehy and Keating, without feelings of extreme horror and disgust. The Irish Parliament is at the same time charged with refusing to investigate the causes of popular discontents, with the view of converting them into engines of state intrigue. In such circumstances, what a blessing must an union be?

The first attempt to break the boundaries of the dire penal code against catholics was made when a bill was brought into Parliament in 1764, to enable the members of that body to take real securities for money: but it miscarried, there being against the measure a considerable majority.

In an extract made by the author from a cotemporary writer, Dr. Campbell, we have this statement of the mode of governing at that time in the sister island:

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"In this nation are three or four grandees, who have such an influence in the House of Commons, that their coalition would, at any time, give them a clear majority upon any question. It has, therefore, always been a maxim of government to disunite these factious chiefs. And, still further to disable opposition, it has been thought expedient to disengage, as much as possible, the followers from their leaders. This was attempted by Lord Chesterfield, so early as the year 1745, but his stay was too short to effect it.

"Formerly, these principals used to stipulate with each new lord lieutenant whose office was biennial, and residence but for six months, upon what terms they would carry the king's business through the houses; so that they might, not improperly, be called undertakers. They provided, that the disposal of all court favours, whether places, pensions, or preferments, should pass through their hands, in order to keep their suite in an absolute state of dependence upon themselves. All applications were made by the leader, who claimed, as a right, the privilege of gratifying his friends in proportion to their numbers.

"Whenever such demands were not complied with, then the measures of government were sure to be crossed and obstructed; and the session of parliament became a constant struggle for power, between the heads of parties, who used to force themselves into the office of lord justice, according to the prevalence of their interest."

From an address moved in Parliament to be presented to His Majesty, we extract an account of the administration of justice in Ireland. It states

"That one principal source of these evils consisted in the appointing persons of mean abilities, and totally unacquainted with the state and municipal constitution of Ireland, to the ministration of justice in the supreme courts of law in that kingdom; by the means of which, all law suits were protracted to an excessive length, and the expences of them were rendered intolerable, the security of persons, of life, and of property, were daily diminished and made more precarious; the laws, instead of being considered as the protection, were become the oppression of the people, and in the place of being obeyed and loved, appeared too often contemptible or disgusting from the incapacity, which sometimes was found in those, who were entrusted with the execution of them."

The author thus depicts an administration which forms a sort of epoch in the history of his country:

'The old lords justices filled their stations for the last time until the appointment of Lord Townsend to be lord lieutenant on the 14th of October, 1767.

'This nobleman was selected to introduce a very important change in the system of governing Ireland. The choice was in many points judicious. In order to attempt the arduous task of supplanting the deep-rooted influence of the Irish oligarchy, it was requisite, that the lord lieutenant, to whom that power was to be transferred, should be endowed with those qualities, that were most likely to ingratiate him with the Irish nation. The new lord lieutenant excelled all his predecessors

decessors in that convivial ease, pleasantry, and humour, so highly prized by the Irish of every description. The majority, which had been so dearly bought in the commons, by those who had heretofore had the management of the *English interest*, was now found not altogether so tractable, as it had heretofore been. There were three or four grandees, as Dr. Campbell observed, who had such an influence in the House of Commons, that their coalition would, at any time, give them a clear majority upon any question. To gain these had been the chief anxiety of former governors: they were sure to bring over a proportionate number of dependants, and it had been the unguarded maxim to permit subordinate graces and favours to flow from or through the hands of these leaders, whom experience now shewed to be as irritable and versatile as the most insignificant of their followers. Formerly these principals used to stipulate with each new lord lieutenant, whose office was biennial and residence but for six months, upon what terms they would carry the king's business through the House: so that they might not improperly be called *undertakers*. They provided, that the disposal of all court favors, whether places, pensions, or preferments, should pass through their hands, in order to keep their suite in an absolute state of dependance upon themselves. All applications were made by the leader, who claimed as a right the privilege of gratifying his friends in proportion to their numbers. Whenever such demands were not complied with, then were the measures of government sure to be crossed and obstructed: and the session of parliament became a constant struggle for power between the heads of parties, who used to force themselves into the office of lord justice according to the prevalence of their interest. This evil had been seen and lamented by Lord Chesterfield: and his resolution and preparatory steps for undermining it probably contributed not a little to his immediate recal upon the cessation of the danger, which his wisdom was thought alone competent to avert.

'This was the system, which Lord Clare said *the government of England at length opened their eyes to the defects and dangers of: they shook the power of the aristocracy, but were unable to break it down.* The monopoly of civil power long survived the administration of Lord Townsend: no small share of it rested with that noble earl, who thus faithfully describing it, practically knew the inability of the English government to break it down. The primary object of Lord Townsend's administration was to break up the monopolizing system of this oligarchy. He in part succeeded, but by means ruinous to the country. The subalterns were not to be detached from their chiefs, but by similar though more powerful means, than those, by which they had enlisted under their banners. The streams of favor became not only multiplied, but enlarged, consequently the source of remuneration the sooner exhausted. Every individual now looked up directly to the fountain head, and claimed and received more copious draughts. Thus, under colour of destroying an overgrown aristocratic power, all parliamentary independance was completely secured by government. The innovation naturally provoked the deserted few to resentment: but they were bereft of their consequence when left to their individual exertions.

exertions *. They took refuge under the shelter of patriotism, and they inveighed with less effect against the venality of the system, merely because it had taken a new direction, and was somewhat enlarged. The bulk of the nation, and some, though very few of their representatives in parliament, were earnest, firm, and implacable against it.

'The arduous task which Lord Townsend had assumed was not to be effected by a coup de main: forces so engaged, so marshalled, and so commanding rather than commanded, as he found the Irish parliament, were not to be dislodged by a sudden charge: regular, gradual, and cautious approaches were to be made: it was requisite, that the chief governor should first be popular, and then powerful, before he could be efficient and successful. His lordship, therefore, to those convivial fascinations, to which the Irish are supereminently sensible, superadded as many personal favors, as the fiscal stores could even promise to answer, which in a people of quick and warm sensibility creates a something very like momentary gratitude; and in order the more completely to seat himself in that effective power, which was requisite for his purpose, he judiciously fixed upon a favorite object of the wishes and attempts of the patriots to sanction with his countenance and support.'

It was under the same government that Ireland obtained regular periodical parliaments:

'The patriots had long and loudly complained, that although in early times the parliament of Ireland continued but for the year or session, and then the popular representatives having discharged the duties required of them for that period, resigned their delegated authority and powers into the hands of those, from whom they had received them, to be again at their free option and disposal: yet in latter times their parliaments were prolonged from the beginning of each reign to the demise of the sovereign, unless he chose by an extraordinary exertion of prerogative to put an earlier period to their existence by dissolution. This they considered as a flagrant violation of the rights of the people: as from them, the representatives derived their political character, its continuance ought to be commensurate with the will of the people, not that of the crown: from the moment their power exceeded their delegation, it was usurpation: the nation might in that case number several self-created law-givers, not one representative. A national evil, which called loudly for redress. Under this baneful system, from the moment of their election, the commons became almost wholly independent of the people; and under the refined improvements of Sir Robert Walpole, in the manage-

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'* Under various pretences, these gentlemen endeavoured to spirit up the people to adopt their resentments, and they affected to take refuge in the arms of patriotism. The contest produced a series of political letters, replete with wit and humour, inferior perhaps to nothing of the kind except the letters of Junius. They have been since published in an octavo volume, under the title of *Baratariana. Phil. Surv. p.* 59.'

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ment of parliamentary interest, the seduction became too powerful for most men, when they were at liberty to treat for life. The patriots anticipated the cure of venality in the frequency of their parliaments, the people hailed the welcome return of their power and controul over their representatives, and government sensibly felt, that they could not longer with-hold from Ireland what England had so long and so reasonably enjoyed. Dr. Lucas had several times failed in his endeavours to procure a bill for limiting the duration of parliament. Now however a septennial bill was transmitted, and was returned with an alteration in point of time, having been changed into an octennial one. There appears to have been some unfair manœuvring in the British cabinet, in order by a side-wind to deprive the Irish of that, which they dared not openly refuse them. At the same time a transmiss was made of another popular bill for the independence of the judges, in which they had also inserted some alteration. It was expected that the violent tenaciousness of the Irish commons for the privilege of not having their heads of bills altered on this side of the water, would have induced them to reject any bill, into which such an alteration had been introduced. In this the English cabinet was deceived: the Irish commons waved the objection as to the limitation bill, in order to make sure at last of what they had so long tried in vain to procure, and considered that they surrendered no part of their privilege by objecting on this very account to the judges bill, which was transmitted at the same time with alterations: for although this latter bill had been particularly recommended in the speech of the lord lieutenant, it was on account of an alteration inserted in it in England, upon the report of the committee appointed to compare the bill with the heads of the bill, unanimously rejected.'

Mr. P. thus speaks of Poyning's law, and of the inconveniences which attended it:

'By Poyning's law, all bills must originate in the Irish privy council, and receive the assent of the king and council in England, previous to their being presented to the legislative bodies of the Irish parliament; in consequence of which process, all bills that came certified from the Irish council to the king in England, were immediately on their arrival delivered to the attorney-general of England, to be perused, and settled by himself or the solicitor-general, but which in fact was generally done by some chamber council, who had leisure to attend to it. The inconveniency of this was illustrated by a bill returned to Ireland altered in 74 places, which had been successively revised by Lord Thurlow, when attorney-general, Lord Rosslyne, when solicitor-general, and the late Mr. Macnamara, a chamber council. The bill so metamorphosed was rejected by the commons of Ireland. These various corrections by an English, Scotch, and Irish lawyer, were of serious consequence to government. The temporary duties of Ireland expired in a few days after the rejection of the bill. Several weeks elapsed before a money-bill could be perfected, sent over to England, returned, and approved by the Irish commons and lords—and in the interim the merchants imported duty free.'

It

It is not less singular than true, that government has scarcely ever enlarged the privileges of sectaries from magnanimity or a sense of justice; and that its concessions have always been made when its authority has been low, when it has been involved in embarrassments, and laboured under apprehensions. Thus the first considerable inroad on the penal code against Catholics was made when the country was in a state of great depression, when it had suffered vast losses from emigration, and dreaded still greater, when the war had been unfortunate, and when the ministers were most unpopular.

The origin of Defenderism, which afterward extended itself so widely, and which finally merged in the too famous Irish union, is thus described:

'In the course of the year 1788, the county of Armagh was disturbed by the increased animosity and outrages of the Peep of Day Boys, and Defenders. These two sets had been advancing in numbers, system, and ferocity, ever since the year 1785: they arose, like many other considerable and tumultuary sets or denominations of men, from mere accident. An altercation took place between two peasants who happened to be Presbyterians: amongst the spectators of the affray, was a Roman Catholic, who took a part with one of the combatants: at which the other swore perpetual vengeance: this spirit of difference was kept up, and the neighbours began to take a part with the original combatants, according to their intimacies of friendship: the spirit of discord spread from families to villages: they embodied and called themselves fleets, and went out to meet and fight each other: hitherto they knew no other difference or distinction, than that of their villages or townships; which, from their names, they called the Nappack fleet, and the Bawn fleet: a third set, living about Bunker's-hill, between Newry and Armagh, associated to defend themselves against the Nappack fleet, and calling themselves Defenders joined the Bawn fleet. Many on both sides were armed; and as far back as 1785, near a thousand men on both sides met for a regular engagement, which was fortunately prevented by some gentlemen of property, who had been apprized of their intentions. When once associations of this sort have formed themselves into bodies, it is impossible that the spirit of discord, or revenge, or even frolic, should not carry them beyond their original intentions, and lead them into new mischief, arising out of the fortuitous circumstances of their unguarded warmth. In this part of the country, the religious division of the population was different from most other districts in Ireland: the Protestants were the more numerous, and of these the greater part were Presbyterians. As the discord and animosity increased, some accidental differences about religion blew up a religious dissention amidst both parties; and, in process of time, they formed into a new division, and enlisted under the opposite banners of the Protestant and Catholic religions. Of all grounds of dissentions, religion is ever the most inveterate, and most to be dreaded. A tumultuary spirit had so long

long pervaded these unfortunate people, that as they had once armed and arrayed themselves for combat, they would not it seems part or disarm without fighting. This new marshalling of their whole force soon gave rise to different appellations: for the Protestants, taking advantage of the laws against Papists having arms, paid their antagonists very early domiciliary visits to search for arms, in which they were often guilty of the most wanton outrages; they acquired the appellation of *Peep of Day Boys;* whilst the others assumed that of *Defenders.* The consequence of this new division of parties was, that their mutual ferocity increased, and frequent rencounters terminated in blood. Certain it is, that by timely and vigorous exertions of government, this spirit of dissention and outrage might have been at any time subdued and extinguished: but unfortunately the unhappy differences were permitted to be fomented by gentlemen of the country for electioneering or other worse purposes. Hence the fatal origin of defenderism.'

Mr. P. gives a very impartial account of the parties, and divisions of parties, which have distracted Ireland since the æra of the French Revolution. The extracts which we subjoin will shew how incurable were the religious animosities in that country:

'The passing of the act so emphatically calculated to destroy all odious distinctions between Irishmen of different religious persuasions, altered the laws, but crushed not the spirit which kept them up. Great difficulties at first prevailed in raising the different regiments of militia; for although Catholics were rendered capable of serving in them, no Catholic officers were appointed: this marked reprobation of all gentlemen of that communion so directly in teeth of the act, diffused a general diffidence amidst the lower orders, and it was found necessary to appoint several Catholic officers, before the militia corps could be completed.

'There were few or no parts of the kingdom, in which attempts were not made by a certain party to traduce and vilify the Catholics, in order to defeat that confidence and consequence, which the patronizing countenance of their sovereign had given them throughout the nation. Not only the exclusive distinctions were publicly kept up in corporations, but anonymous charges and slanders were published and circulated with all the industry of envenomed acrimony. The Catholics published protestations against these anonymous attacks, with fresh resolutions and avowals of their loyalty and affection to the king and constitution. The growth and progress of defenderism, particularly in the county of Meath, afforded fuel to the enemies of the Catholic body, which they studied to implicate in the crimes of those furious miscreants. Painful industry was employed to work up the imaginations of the inhabitants into the expectation of a general massacre of all the Protestants throughout that county. No arts were left untried to criminate the Catholic body: every exceptionable word or action of antindividual, however contemptible, was charged on the entire body; and the object was now, not so much to suppress the Defenders, as to fasten their enormities on the Catholic body.'—

'Mr.

'Mr. Foster openly professed himself at all times an enemy to all Catholic indulgence, and was prominently active in his zeal against them. The Earl of Bective's natural mildness prevented him from opposing the new born influence in the county of Meath, which Mr. Foster assumed on this, for the first occasion, from the overflowing of his zeal against Popery. One of the members of the sub-committee was a Catholic, and this right honorable gentleman undertook to new-model it by excluding from it every member that was not a magistrate. After these exertions at Navan, he went to Ardbraccan, and thence returned to Navan, of which he seemed to take a survey. Strange rumours were immediately circulated, that the dark business of defenderism was traced to its source, and that the discovery would astonish the nation. On the next public market day, Mr. John Fay, a most respectable and amiable character of that town, was arrested in the open street: bail was refused, and he was ignominiously hurried under a military escort to the county gaol. He was charged with having conspired against the life of Mr. Butler. The town of Navan was chiefly inhabited by Catholics, and had lately been most grossly traduced; it had been termed a sink of iniquity, and the judges, in their way from Trim to the county of Louth, had been warned, as they tendered their personal safety, not to pass through the town of Navan. The imprisonment of Mr. Fay gave rise to serious apprehensions on one part of a general proscription of the Catholics, and on the other to the belief of a Popish conspiracy to massacre all the Protestants. Thus were the feelings of the whole district made the sport of the wicked, who were attempting to play the basest game under these fictitious plots.

'There evidently was a deep plot laid by persons of political influence in the country to criminate Mr. Fay, and several other respectable persons of his persuasion as aiders and abettors of treason, murder, and every outrage, that can disturb society and dissolve civil government: the immediate object of which was to stigmatize the body of Roman Catholics. But justice providentially prevailed, and opened to view the base machinations and perjuries of the wretched informer Lynch, and other miscreants, raked out of the neighbouring gaols, who had been hired and suborned to swear away the lives of innocent and meritorious men. The honorable acquittal of Mr. Fay, and the public exposure of the attempts of the junto, to criminate by the like means, Mr. Dowdal of Clown, Mr. Bird of Drogheda, and some other Catholic gentlemen of the first commercial consequence, upon whom the most ferocious severity had been exercised whilst under the control of the magistrates, cast such disgrace and infamy upon the perpetrators of this dark conspiracy, that for a time the Catholics were no longer molested by this species of persecution. The Catholics in these parts of the country most infested by the defenders, had from their numbers suffered more from those depredators than the Protestants, and although it evidently were a plebeian league against property, yet it is to be remarked, that in every assize for the county of Meath since the defenders first appeared there, no Roman Catholic was admitted on juries on the crown side, although formerly those juries had generally consisted of Catholics. The malice, prejudice, falsehood, and infamy,

that appeared at the assizes at Trim upon the trial of Mr. Fay, were too rank for the most sanguinary bigot. The judge was shocked: every honest man cried shame: the junto were confounded at the failure of their own schemes.'

The laws were farther relaxed in favour of the Catholics in 1793; which measure is, apparently on good grounds, ascribed to the influence which Mr. Burke then possessed over the British cabinet. That the concession was by no means agreeable to the party, which has since assumed the appellation of *Orange*, is most evident from the insolent tone of the reply of Lord Clare to the truly liberal and christian speech of the Bishop of Killala (Law); who was at the same time reprehended by his Grace of Cashel, now of Dublin.

It appears to be very important towards a right understanding of the history of Ireland at a recent period, that we should be apprized of the successive variations in the sentiments of the society of the Irish union, as well as of the dates of those changes. We could have wished, therefore, that this matter had been somewhat more laboured by the present author.

The sudden favourable turn in Irish affairs on the arrival of Lord Fitzwilliam at Dublin, the dreadful consequences which ensued on his recall, and the issue between him and the ministers of that day, are too well known to our readers to require any observations from us on that portion of the work which narrates them.

In his account of the late horrible disturbances, Mr. Plowden displays in general great fairness and impartiality; principally following Messrs. Gordon and Hay, and the admirable narrative of the Bishop of Killala. He takes also several opportunities of pointing out the mis-statements in Sir Richard Musgrave's memoirs, which are too numerous to allow any person to suppose that they were involuntary: but we are persuaded that Mr. P.'s fears respecting the mischief to be dreaded from that work are, in a great degree, groundless; since we cannot believe that it will mislead any except those who have a desire to be deceived. In Ireland, it may have too successfully attained its object: but it never possessed any credit in this country, and was, we believe, very little read in it, and still less regarded.

The proceedings relative to the Union are also so recent, that we shall make no comment on the detail of the events which ended in the consummation of that great measure; which on all occasions has called forth our commendation, and which, in our humble judgment, if duly followed up, would be productive of the greatest benefits to both countries. As it respects Ireland, we never entertained doubts in regard to its eligibility; as it affects Great Britain, it is impossible not to

feel serious apprehensions concerning its result on the whole. It had a most important influence on the deliberations of Parliament in a very late instance: since it was to the accession of members in consequence of the union, that the present ministers were indebted for the retention of their situation; and it is in this view of it that the words of Montesquieu become applicable: *Ce qu'on appelle union, dans un corps politique, est une chose très équivoque* *.

That reader must be fastidious, who will not feel grateful to Mr. Plowden for his account of the course of the Irish government from the revolution to our own times; and for his able statement of the origin, rise, and progress of an Irish interest struggling with the English, and which triumphed over it in 1802. We give him much credit for the judicious manner in which he ascertains the services rendered to Ireland by Swift; as well as for his happy and lucid sketches of the short-lived administration of Lord Chesterfield, and of the systems of intrigue and corruption which were pursued by the Primates Boulter and Stone.

We lament, however, that, in order to secure to the work a more extensive utility, the author was not more concise in the part which preceded the revolution; and that he did not more compress his matter throughout. He ought either to have rendered his collection of state papers complete, or to have made it far more select; he ought only in very particular cases to have published the debates at length; and in general he should have been contented with giving the substance of the arguments used in the course of them. The history would then have been diminished to a fourth of its present bulk, which would have increased the circulation in a ratio greatly exceeding that of the reduction of the size; and it would in that case have secured general attention, while now it will be consulted only by the laborious few, and by persons directly interested in the subject.

Since the above article has been composed, the legislature has formed a decision on the petition of the respectable and powerful body, of which so much is said in these volumes. The opinion which we have professed, with respect to the claims which have been rejected, remains unaltered; and though the event has in this instance proved unfavourable to the reasonable expectations of the Catholics, we can discover in it nothing that should damp the hope of better success on a future occasion. Jo.

* *De la Grand. des Rom. & de leur Decad.* c. ix.

ART. VII. *Hints towards forming the Character of a Young Princess.* Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 330, and 403. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1805.

RUMOUR ascribes these volumes to a literary lady of celebrity (Mrs. Hannah More), and internal evidence inclines us to credit the assertion. The achievement here attempted is indeed arduous, and one in which it would not be wholly inglorious to succumb; since the work undertakes to prescribe the studies and relaxations, the sentiments and the habits, which shall best form the mind and model the conduct of a young personage born to the highest destinies. For the enterprising heroine who has volunteered this bold undertaking, we can safely say that, if she be chargeable with omissions, she steers for the most part clear of errors; and that she neither inculcates any maxims, nor enjoins any rule of action, which wisdom and virtue do not sanction. It is impossible not to respect the views and applaud the intentions of the fair monitor. If her genius less transcends, and if she commands not the same extent of knowlege, she writes in the spirit at least of Fenelon, and has in view the same benevolent design: for the aim of her labours is to form a patriot Princess, whom she exhorts to found her glory and her greatness on the happiness and love of her subjects.

Deeply impressed with the excellence of our institutions, the writer would have the royal pupil inspired with the like feelings, and taught to cherish free maxims of government, with a liberal and tolerant spirit of religion. The prudential part of the work is on the whole highly commendable; and if it wants novelty, (as it unavoidably must,) it is not deficient in interest, and forms a portion of the volumes not the least meriting attention from the preceptors of the illustrious infant.

Sound directions are given in the following passage, for the exercise of the most important functions of a sovereign:

'Let her ever bear in mind (that) she *is not to study that she become learned, but that she may become wise.* It is by such an acquisition of knowledge as is here recommended, that her mind must be so enlarged and invigorated as to prepare her for following wise counsels, without blindly yielding to fortuitous suggestions; as to enable her to trace actions into their multifarious consequences, and to discover real analogies without being deceived by superficial appearances of resemblance. It is thus that she must be secured from the dominion of the less enlightened. This will preserve her from credulity; prevent her from over-rating inferior talents, and help her to attain that *nil admirari*, which is so necessary for distinguishing arrogant pretension from substantial merit. It will aid her to appreciate the value of those around her; will assist her penetration in what regards her friends;

friends; preserve her from a blind prejudice in chusing them, from retaining them through fear or fondness, and from changing them through weakness or caprice. "When we are abused through specious appearances," says the judicious Hooker, "it is because reason is negligent to search out the fallacy." But, he might have added, if reason be not cultivated early, if it be not exercised constantly, it will have no eye for discernment, no heart for vigorous exertion. Specious appearances will perpetually deceive that mind which has been accustomed to acquiesce in them through ignorance, blindness, and inaction.'

A very proper example, to shew the importance of a well stored and cultivated mind, is here submitted to the consideration of the royal pupil:

'Knowledge is often the preservative of virtue; and, next to right habits of sentiment and conduct, the best human source of happiness. Could Louis the Fourteenth have *read*, probably the edict of Nantz had not been revoked. But a restless temper, and a vacant mind, unhappily lighting on absolute power, present in this monarch, a striking instance of the fatal effects of ignorance, and the calamity of a neglected education. He had a good natural understanding, loved business, and seemed to have a mind capable of comprehending it. Many of his recorded expressions are neat and elegant. But he was uninstructed upon system; Cardinal Mazarine, with a view to secure his own dominion, having withheld from him all the necessary means of education. Thus, he had received no ideas from books; he even hated in others the learning which he did not himself possess: the terms *wit* and *scholar*, were, in his mind, terms of reproach; the one as implying satire, the other pedantry. He wanted not application to public affairs; and habit had given him some experience in them. But the apathy which marked his latter years, strongly illustrated the infelicity of an unfurnished mind. This, in the tumult of his brighter days, amidst the succession of intrigues, the splendour of festivity, and the bustle of arms, was scarcely felt. But ambition and voluptuousness cannot always be gratified. Those ardent passions, which in youth were devoted to licentiousness, in the meridian of life to war, in a more advanced age to bigotry and intolerance, not only had never been directed by religion, but had never been softened by letters. After he had renounced his mistresses at home, and his unjust wars abroad, even though his mind seems to have acquired some pious tendencies, his life became a scene of such inanity and restlessness, that he was impatient at being, for a moment, left alone. He had no mental resources. The agitation of great events had subsided. From never having learned either to employ himself in reading or thinking, his life became a blank, from which he could not be relieved by the sight of his palaces, his gardens, and his aqueducts, the purchase of depopulated villages, and plundered cities.'

It is also well observed that

'While a prince is taught the use of those exterior embellishments, which, as was before observed, designate, rather than dignify his sta-

tion; while he is led to place the just value on every appendage which may contribute to give him importance in the eyes of the multitude; who, not being just judges of what constitutes true dignity, are consequently apt to reverence the royal person exactly so far as they see outward splendour connected with it; should not a royal pupil himself be taught, instead of over-valuing that splendour, to think it an humbling, rather than an elevating consideration, that so large a part of the respect paid to him, should be owing to such extrinsic causes, to causes which make no part of himself? Let him then be taught to gratify the public with all the pomp and circumstance suitable to royalty; but let him never forget, that though his station ought always to procure for him respect, he must ever look to his own personal conduct for inspiring veneration, attachment, and affection; and ever let it be remembered, that this affection is the strongest tie of obedience: that subjects like to see their prince great, when that greatness is not produced by rendering them less; and, as the profound Selden observes, "the people will always be liberal to a prince who spares them, and a good prince will always spare a liberal people."

To the course of reading here laid down for the young Princess, as an introductory one, we have not much to object: but, when her principles become rooted, and her taste fixed, it will be proper that the leading-strings here furnished should be laid aside; that she should walk alone; and that, like her present able and ingenious preceptress, she should exercise her judgment on various performances. When treating of French authors, Voltaire is altogether proscribed by this writer; and no exception whatever is made, even in favour of Merope or Mahomet, of his matchless fugitive pieces, nor of his Essay on General History, on which Robertson has pronounced so high yet so just a panegyric. We admit the validity of this monitor's observations on the *Siècle de Louis XIV*: but so much do we differ from the conclusion here drawn, that we deem it a very proper book to be read to a young prince by a judicious preceptor, who would accompany the perusal with the necessary remarks.

The reflections of this writer on the histories of Greece and Rome, if not original, are not those of a mere copyist. The advantages of an acquaintance with the Latin language are happily and forcibly pointed out; and just observations are made on the importance of history as a study for Princes. We are of opinion that modern history best connects itself with that of France: for this kingdom was one of the first that arose out of the ruins of the Roman empire: a circumstance from which, together with its local situation and its greater or less ascendancy in Europe, it may justly claim such a distinction. By first studying attentively the history of France, the royal

royal pupil will better understand that of her own country; and without this preliminary step she will scarcely comprehend it, much less be able to make a thorough application of its lessons. The history of the See of Rome is also, in this view, of the highest importance, since it throws light on every point of modern record, down to the æra of the reformation. No idea can be more erroneous than that which represents the annals of popes and councils as not falling within the studies of statesmen, and as claiming only the attention of divines; whereas in truth they are to the latter merely acquisitions of ornament, but are eminently adapted to prepare the former for the business of life. The ecclesiastics of the middle ages were rather statesmen and lawyers than churchmen; they were the ministers, the ambassadors, and the presidents of tribunals of those days. Consummate skill in diplomacy, high refinement in law proceedings, and a superior polish, distinguished the Court of Rome, while those of temporal princes were immersed in barbarism. The Roman Catholic church has been our preceptress in these matters; our policy, municipal and general, has been materially derived from her; and those who do not contemplate her annals, particularly while she was the paramount power in Europe, will be very imperfectly versed in modern history. It is true, however, that this study will be proper only when the faculties are perfected, and the judgment matured.—If we do not dispute the position of the writer before us, that a great and wise sovereign will disdain Machiavellian arts and intrigues, we peremptorily deny that he can with safety remain ignorant of them.

Masterly sketches of renowned princes are here submitted to the eye of the royal pupil. The likenesses do not flatter, and justice is scarcely rendered to the originals: a fault which, in such a work as the present, is on the right side. With respect to the crying sins and the shameful errors which stain the memory of Louis XIV. there is no room for a difference of opinion; yet we think that these pages shew that great injustice may be done to that famed personage. The account throws us back into the war of the succession. To exhibit this monarch's vices with high colouring was proper, but why are bad motives to be assigned to the good which he performed? The man who had no laudable quality has seldom existed; and Louis XIV., with all his errors, was certainly not that man. Is it no merit to have been as it were the creator and chief of a society in which genius, wit, refinement, and good breeding shone with a lustre never before nor since equalled? Those who would judge impartially of the weak, vain, and ostentatious monarch, should mark how he was considered

in the transcendent circle in which he moved. We have documents in abundance which disclose the private sentiments of able observers, who thoroughly knew their sovereign.

The critique of the ingenious author on Telemachus commands our entire acquiescence; and the examination of the merits of the several *chefs d'œuvre* of our immortal dramatist bespeak a kindred spirit.

Hume being likely to engage a large share of the attention of the royal pupil, it is with much propriety that he is elaborately criticized by the present writer:

'His finely painted characters of Alfred and Elizabeth should be engraved on the heart of every sovereign. His political prejudices do not strikingly appear, till the establishment of the house of Stuart, nor his religious antipathies till about the distant dawn of the reformation under Henry V. From that period to its full establishment, he is perhaps more dangerous, because less ostensibly daring than some other infidel historians. It is a serpent under a bed of roses. He does not (in his *history* at least) so much ridicule religion himself, as invite others to ridicule it. There is a sedateness in his manner which imposes; a sly gravity in his scepticism, which puts the reader more off his guard, than the vehemence of censure, or the levity of wit; for we are always less disposed to suspect a man who is too wise to appear angry. That same wisdom makes him too correct to *invent* calumnies, but it does not preserve him from doing what is scarcely less disingenuous He implicitly adopts the injurious relations of those annalists who were most hostile to the reformed faith; though he must have known their accounts to be aggravated and discoloured, if not absolutely invented. He thus makes others responsible for the worst things he asserts, and spreads the mischief, without avowing the malignity. When he speaks from himself, the sneer is so cool, the irony so sober, the contempt so discreet, the moderation so insidious, the difference between Popish bigotry and Protestant firmness, between the fury of the persecutor and the resolution of the martyr, so little marked; the distinctions between intolerant phrenzy and heroic zeal so melted into each other, that though he contrives to make the reader feel some indignation at the tyrant, he never leads him to feel any reverence for the sufferer. He ascribes such a slender superiority to one religious system above another, that the young reader, who does not come to the perusal with his principles formed, will be in danger of thinking that the reformation was really not worth contending for.

'But, in nothing is the skill of this accomplished sophist more apparent than in the artful way in which he piques his readers into a conformity with his own views concerning religion. Human pride, he knew, naturally likes to range itself on the side of ability. He, therefore, skilfully works on this passion, by treating, with a sort of contemptuous superiority, as weak and credulous men, all whom he represents as being under the religious delusion.'

The author ably and ingeniously contends for the right of civil communities to avail themselves of the aid of religion, in advancing

advancing all the ends of good government. The merits of the question, however, are only slightly touched; and no pains are taken to distinguish between the good effects which would arise from religion being prevalent as an individual concern, and those which flow from giving it that protection and encouragement which constitute what are called establishments. We fully agree in the opinion that

'It would not, perhaps, be easy to cite an higher authority, on the point in question, the importance of religion to a state, than that of the great and excellent Chancellor de L'Hopital. It was a common observation of his, that "religion had more influence upon the spirits of mankind, than all their passions put together; and that the cement, by which it united them, was infinitely stronger than all the other obligations of civil society." This was not the observation of a dreaming monk, who, in his cell, writes maxims for a world of which he knows nothing; but the sentiment, derived from deep experience, of an illustrious statesman, whose greatness of mind, zeal, disinterestedness, and powerful talents, supported France under a succession of weak and profligate kings. Frugal for the state, in times of boundless prodigality; philosophical in a period of enthusiastic fury; tolerant and candid in days of persecution, and deeply conscientious under all circumstances; worthy in short, and it is perhaps his best eulogium, to be driven, for his virtues, by Catherine di Medici, from counsels which his wisdom might have controlled; and who, on giving up the seals which she demanded, withdrew to an honourable literary retreat, with the remark, that "the world was too depraved for him to concern himself any longer with it." These are the men whom corrupt princes drive from the direction of those states, which their wisdom and virtue might reform.'

In speaking of books, the writer presents us with this passage, which we do not quote as altogether approving it:

'To burthen the memory with a load of dry matter would, on the one hand, be dull; and with a mass of poetry, which she can have little occasion to use, would, on the other, be superfluous. But, as the understanding opens, and years advance, might she not occasionally commit to memory, from the best authors in every department, one select passage, one weighty sentence, one striking precept, which, in the hours devoted to society and relaxation, might form a kind of thesis for interesting conversation. For instance, a short specimen of eloquence from South, or of reasoning from Barrow; a detached reflection on the analogy of religion to the constitution of nature from Butler; a political character from Clarendon; a maxim of prudence from the proverbs; a precept of government from Bacon; a moral document from the Rambler; a passage of ancient history from Plutarch; a sketch of national manners from Goldsmith's Traveller, or of individual character from the Vanity of Human Wishes; an aphorism on the contempt of riches from Seneca, or a paragraph on the wealth of nations from Adam Smith; a rule of conduct from Sir Matthew Hale, or a sentiment of benevolence from Mr. Addison; a devout

a devout contemplation from bishop Hall, or a principle of taste from Quintilian; an opinion on the law of nations from Vattel, or on the law of England from Blackstone.'

Comparing the periodical essays of Addison and Johnson, the author makes this sound and able criticism:

'It is less from Johnson than from Addison that we derive the interesting lessons of life and manners; that we learn to trace the exact delineations of character, and to catch the vivid hues, and varied tints of nature. It is true, that every sentence of the more recent moralist is an aphorism, every paragraph a chain of maxims for guiding the understanding and guarding the heart. But when Johnson describes *characters*, he rather exhibits vice and virtue in the abstract, than real existing human beings: while Addison presents you with actual men and women; real life figures, compounded of the faults and the excellencies, the wisdom and the weaknesses, the follies and the virtues of humanity.—By the Avarus, the Eubulus, the Misellus, the Sophron, the Zosima, and the Viator of Johnson, we are instructed in the soundest truths, but we are not struck with any vivid exemplification. We merely *hear* them, and we hear them with profit, but we do not *know* them. Whereas, with the members of the Spectator's club we are *acquainted*. Johnson's personages are elaborately carved figures that fill the niches of the saloon; Addison's are the living company which animate it. Johnson's have more drapery; Addison's more countenance. Johnson's gentlemen and ladies, scholars and chambermaids, philosophers and coquets, all argue syllogistically, all converse in the same academic language; divide all their sentences into the same triple members, turn every phrase with the same measured solemnity, and round every period with the same polished smoothness. Addison's talk learnedly or lightly, think deeply, or prate flippantly, in exact concordance with their character, station, and habits of life.'

Adverting to the causes which led to the revolution in this country, it is observed;

'The long reign of Queen Elizabeth seems to have been designed for the purpose of consolidating and perpetuating the great work which had been accomplished. During that period, all the energies of the prerogative were exercised for the exclusive maintenance of the established religion. And may we not believe, that this was necessary, till the new order of things should have established itself in the habits of the people.'

A zealous adherent to our establishment may naturally take this view of the subject: yet still he must detest the men, however sacred their characters and exalted their stations, who persecuted even to death numberless pious and worthy individuals, for differences the most trivial. Nothing in our history is more disgusting than the proceedings of the two metropolitans, Parker and Whitgift. With great deference to the present ingenious writer, we would ask, *may we not believe*? that more of connivance and forbearance, which so well become a christian

tian magistrate and minister of the gospel, might without prejudice have been shewn?

During a considerable part of these volumes, the author states enlarged and liberal views with a sprightliness and an ease which are very remote from religious austerity; the countenance is overcast by no gloom, nothing of fanatical acerbity discovers itself, and the physiognomy is almost uniformly serene and cheerful. Towards the close of the work, however, when treating more immediately on the subject of religion, amid much which we admire, and which we would strongly recommend, we observe some remarks thrown out which too clearly betray the peculiar notions of the writer: but here she deals in enigmas, and more is insinuated than expressed. As she hereelf before observed of Hume, so we may say that the caution and address here used do not, perhaps, render the counsels less dangerous. Far be it from us to intimate that the writer acted with conscious disingenuousness, for on the contrary we believe her motives to be pure, and her designs laudable: but we must be allowed to observe, and we wish to do it without offence, that it is because she has not avowed her rigid religious tenets, and pressed them on the royal pupil, that we have commended her work upon the whole. We should indeed deeply lament to see the probable future sovereign of these realms become the victim of religious enthusiasm, and countenancing principles already perhaps too widely disseminated, and too powerfully supported.

The royal pupil is here treated with all the *bienséance* which her exalted rank prescribes. The directions for the formation of her understanding, if they do not embrace the extent of knowlege in which it ought to exist in the mind of a great and enlightened sovereign, merit much commendation, and are highly creditable to the enlarged views and very respectable attainments of the writer. Nothing like adulation degrades the page. The obligations of virtue, the sacredness of the laws, and the duties of her elevated situation, are enforced with honest sincerity; the dangers which beset the eminence, on which she is destined to stand, are not dissembled; and well selected examples, both for caution and for imitation, are held up to her view. It is ably demonstrated to her in what real greatness consists; that the sole durable foundations, on which it can be erected, are the happiness and affection of a people; and she is exhorted to love, cherish, and pursue those principles which placed her family on the throne, and which have endeared it to the free and loyal subjects of these realms.—To conclude, then, while we object to some matters in the theological part of these volumes, we are still of

opinion

opinion that they will form very acceptable companions to the studies of the young princess, who was contemplated in the composition of them.

Jo.

ART. VIII. *Poems*, by George Richards, M. A. late Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

IN the sixth volume of our New Series, p. 398, we bestowed due commendation on the "Aboriginal Britons" of this author. The other pieces, with which this poem is now accompanied, certainly manifest classical taste, and an intimate acquaintance with some of our most celebrated modern bards; but we are reluctantly compelled to acknowlege that they are rather tamely correct than animated or impressive; and that, instead of transporting us by rapid and sublime flights, they drag us slowly along in torpid smoothness. Few of Mr. Richards's productions have pleased us more than the dedicatory stanzas in the first volume, addressed to the Earl and Countess of Harcourt:

"Turn, stranger youth, thy vagrant feet
O turn to this delightful seat *;
Here Fancy builds her fairy bowers;
Here Isis winds her classic stream;
And distant o'er the valleys gleam
Thy favourite Oxford's spiry towers.
Poetic dreams the scenes inspire;
And HARCOURT loves the tuneful train.
Here MASON swept the sounding lyre:
Here WHITEHEAD pour'd his graceful strain."

"Sweet to my ear the sounds were borne,
While yet in life's gay opening morn,
Poetic visions gleaming bright,
On Cherwell's lonely banks I stray'd:
I heard, and with a blush obey'd.
I sought the summer-mantled height:
I seem'd through Paradise to rove:
The air with sweetest music rung:
The Graces rang'd each lawn and grove;
The Muse from every thicket sung.

"Sooth'd by her song, I careless stray,
While roll the summer suns away:
Her visions all my soul o'erpower:
She bade before my wondering eyes
The bleak Caucasian mountains rise,

---

* "Turn, Angelina, ever dear,
My charmer, turn, and see," &c.
Edwin and Angelina.

And

And Odin's pile, funereal tower:
Or led in gentler hour my feet,
Where Wye's romantic waters roll,
And hapless Emma, sadly sweet,
Repentant pours her tender soul.

'Harcourt, accept the humble lays:
The Muse bestows no vulgar praise:
She gave th' Augustan times to fame;
To Louis, long her favourer, true,
When glory faithless from him flew,
Her grateful voice preserv'd his name.
She too, thy ancient house to grace,
Has tun'd from age to age her lay.
Immortal, like herself, the race
Renown'd by Pope, and lov'd by Gay.'

Besides these complimentary verses, the first volume contains two Tragedies, intitled *Odin* and *Emma*; which the author, in an evil hour, modelled on the scheme of the Grecian drama. The first, intended as an imitation of the manner of Æschylus, strikes us as the least exceptionable: but, as an imitation, it is deficient in fire, energy, and interest. These important wants we by no means ascribe to the 'severe simplicity of the fable;' for a very simple story may be very deeply affecting;—nor to the romantic and even supernatural cast of the actions, the characters, the sentiments, and the imagery; for these are circumstances which usually enhance the merits of elegant fiction:—we attribute them entirely to the improper choice and the unskilful management of the subject.

'At the close of the long war which the Romans waged against Mithridates, that unfortunate Monarch fled for succour to the rude nations, which inhabited the country lying between the Caspian and the Euxine Seas. The Asæ, over whom Odin reigned, formed one of those nations. Pompey, the Roman general, pursued Mithridates, and vanquished the several tribes, through which he passed. Odin, unable to resist his arms, is supposed to have retired with his Asæ into the North, and there to have founded some of the present kingdoms of Europe. The actions immediately preceding his final departure form the subject of the following Drama.'

The discomfiture of a horde of mountaineers, whose history is dark and remote, and who are *supposed* to have retreated to Scandinavia, is little calculated to rouze the feelings, or to take a strong hold of the sympathies of modern readers. In the pathetic regrets which are expressed for Balder, the son of Odin, we can really scarcely participate, for the hero seems to be quite solicitous to breathe his last. According to the tradition of the Scalds, Balder fell by the hands of his brother Holder: but Mr. Richards dispatches him by the Roman

sword.—The *denouement* is a catastrophe of a very uncommon description, namely, the migration of a vanquished tribe to the Hyperborean regions. As the funereal pile, on which the king and his subjects had resolved to expire, was already prepared, we feel little inclined to thank the goddess Gondula for her *chilling* interference. Neither can we much admire the taste or the sagacity of Odin; who, after his sword was enchanted, instead of immediately wielding it to the destruction of his employers, and after loud talking about the patriotic conflagration, tamely acquiesces in the northern march, on the remote prospect of tardy vengeance inflicted by his posterity on the Roman name. We may also ask with what propriety the obscure and untutored Asæ can be made the subject of a regular tragedy, conducted on the Grecian model? Can we attribute to the speakers the refined sentiments and polished language of a modern scholar, without a gross violation of probability? Or can we suppose the most cultivated among them to be competent to the high-flown lyric morality and the allegorical abstractions of the choral interludes, without betraying our ignorance of human nature? The supposed removal of the Asæ to the polar regions may, in some measure, apologize for the Gothic machinery of the fable: but this machinery should have been consistent with itself. *Odin* and *Woden* should not have been represented as distinct personages, nor Gondula as one of the destinies.

This poem, however, contains a few passages of very considerable merit. We extract one or two of the most striking:

Antistrophe.

'Beneath an oak oppress'd,
To short perturbed rest,
I sunk beneath the cold and angry sky;
Yon eagles, mid the blast,
That countless ages past,
Built on the cliffs their pathless aeries high.
Sudden from all their caverns hoar,
Rush'd with resounding pinions forth,
Scream'd as they pass'd yon mountains o'er,
And sought the dark and stormy north.
Instant the cliffs, that beetling frown,
Parted, and roll'd in ruin down;
I shriek'd, and wild with terror sprung from sleep,
Then fled, and flying heard the falling steep.'

The rough features of a northern climate are thus portrayed:

'Far to the stormy north,
The land of winter, nurse of frost and snows;
There on the world through joyless months the sun
Ne'er rises, the pale moon and stars alone

Light

Light the cold traveller o'er the snows: yet there
In freedom shalt thou roam: there shall thy sons
Sit on an hundred thrones; there nerve with force
And train to war upon the inclement rocks
Thy tribes heroic; till on beds of snow
By the keen breath of icy winter brac'd,
With giant limbs, and arms of monstrous size,
From rocks, and forests dark, and frozen wilds,
Fierce as the Caspian storm, invincible,
Resistless, terrible, they rush on Rome,
Shake like an earthquake all her hundred realms,
And lay her mighty empire in the dust.'

Again,

'Marches long,
O'er wood, moor, fen, and rock, and snowy wild,
Where not a foe will cheer the way with conquest,
The fang of winter, and keen famine's gripe,
Shall never break me.'

The general smoothness of the versification is sometimes strangely broken by such lines as these:

'Soon will these untrod mountains o'er.'
'Huge heaps of shapeless stone tumbled loose round him.'
'Our tribes shall roll huge mass of unhewn stone.'
'With the proud expectation, BALDER, SEOFFRID,
HODER, and HAROLD, SIGISMUND, and BRAGER.'

Without being exempt from such minor blemishes, the tragedy of *Emma* is unhappily planned, and feebly executed. The plot hinges on the hackneyed tale of female innocence ruined by villany. The unfortunate fair one, we need hardly intimate, dies of a broken heart,—her brother falls in combat with her seducer, who was formerly his friend,—and the aged father is abandoned to solitude and sadness. On these incidents, which are so familiar to the compounders of modern novels and romances, Mr. Richards has ingrafted the manners of the chivalrous age, and has oddly enough adapted to the whole the continuous scene and classical costume of the Greek theatre. With these incongruities, he blends the description rather than the exemplification of passion, and scenes which would be truly pathetic were they not unduly prolonged.

Of the odes and miscellaneous poems which occur in the second volume, '*the Fair Pilgrim*,' '*the Ode to Peace*,' '*the Christian*,' and '*Bamborough Castle*,' have pleased us most. From the last, we select the following lines:

'At solemn midnight, when the bark shall ride,
With streaming pendants o'er the peaceful tide;
When trembling moon-beams play along the brine,
And stars round all the glowing welkin shine;

When,

When, silent borne along, the whitening sails
Swell with the summer's gently breathing gales;
The pilot, listening to the wave below,
Which hoarsely breaks against the passing prow,
Shall thoughtful turn, where dimly to his eyes
Through the pale night these mellow'd turrets rise;
And, as he muses on some friend most dear,
Rais'd by thy mercy from a watery bier,
Swelling at heart, shall o'er the tranquil wave
Give thee a sigh, and bless thy hallow'd grave.'

In his imitations of the antients, the poet has been more restrained than animated; and, in borrowing from modern sources, his language sometimes approaches too nearly to that of his original. Thus,

'The time will come,
When the proud mountains, the broad base of earth,
The ocean and majestic firmament
Shall vanish into nothing.'

These lines immediately suggest a very celebrated and very popular passage, which is more beautifully expanded by our great dramatic bard.—

'Turn'd to the north,
Deep in the rock I trac'd the Runic rhyme,
Over the grave mutter'd mysterious sounds,
And thrice three times call'd loud on Rinda's name,
She heard, she spoke,'

Here are very plainly recalled the well-known lines of Gray,

" Facing to the northern clime,
Thrice he trac'd the Runic rhyme,
Thrice pronounc'd in accents dread,
The thrilling verse that wakes the dead," &c.

When, however, we thus candidly point out what we conceive to be objectionable in these volumes, we are fully aware that their author has aimed at a height to which few have attained; and that, though we cannot rank him with a Milton, Mason, or a Gray, he deserves a respectable station among our poets of the second order.

Mur.

ART. IX. *Odd Whims and Miscellanies.* By Humphry Repton, Esq. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 18s. Boards. Miller. 1804.

AMONG these odd whims, the author's wonderful humility is not the least; for, while Mr. Windham, to whom the book is dedicated, 'studied to raise the glory and secure the best interests of the country,' Mr. Repton says that 'he was content to guide its taste and improve its scenery.' Nay, he can even

even condescend to trifle, since 'the wise, the good, the benevolent man, and the man of genius, knows the value of trifling.' These handsomely printed volumes, embellished with coloured engravings, are therefore the fruit of his relaxation.

Vol. I. besides the dedication and introduction, contains essays intitled, *Thoughts on Happiness, Variety of Characters, on Love, on Dissipation, on Cheating, Allegory of Hope and Expectation, on Gratitude, on Fashion in Dress, the Bashful Man, Voyage to the Moon,* and *the Friar's Tale.* As these are reprinted from a collection published in the year 1787, under the title of *Variety,* we refer for an account of their character to the 79th volume of our Review, p. 440.

The second volume commences with *Observations on the Drama.* A few of these are of a general nature, and point to the circumstances in our present manners which affect the character of our theatrical exhibitions: but Mr. R.'s own comedy, intitled '*Odd Whims,* or *Two at a Time,*' is the figuring piece which suggests the remarks. Though written upwards of twenty years ago, and honoured with the approbation of Burke, Sir Joshua Reynolds, and other competent judges, it has never been represented on a London theatre. 'However anxious,' says the author, 'I might originally have been for the performance of this play, I was afterwards not less desirous to have it suppressed: because my profession made me known to the public more advantageously than I could hope to be as the author of a comedy, of which the event must be ever doubtful.' We were very honestly participating in the other sources of the author's consolation, at which he hints in these introductory pages, when, to our surprize, we found by the concluding paragraph that he had 'consented to try the effects of the comedy,' at Mr. Wilkins's new theatre at Ipswich. 'Thus of necessity many copies of it have gone from me: lest any one of these should be published without my consent, I determined to have a few copies printed, together with the drawings, which convey more lively ideas of the scenery, appearance, and dresses of the characters, than might otherwise be formed from the perusal of the work.'—Leaving Mr. R. to explain the consistency of his own feelings, we have to observe that most of the characters in this piece are sustained with ability; and that the plot, though double, and rather at variance with probability, is contrived to excite a certain degree of interest. Yet we cannot allow that the odious Lord Argent, Wilson, Susan, and Madam Crepon, are fit subjects of ridicule, that the misdeeds of Sir James Oddwhim should pass under the gentle appellation of 'juvenile faults,' nor that the performance abounds in elegant and playful humour. Sir

Geoffry Oddwhim is, indeed, a truly comic character: but he might have been more frequently introduced, or placed in more marked situations. Even the conversation of the Irish Waiter is overloaded with studied bulls; and Mad. Crepon's depravity prevents us from laughing at her voluble and impetuous jargon.

The disguise of Charlotte and Ruki, the black servant, is well conceived, and gives rise to one of the attempts at ludicrous scenes which occur in the comedy:

'*Re-enter Charlotte, disguised.*

'*Char.* If I shou'd be discover'd!—will she not know me, think ye?

'*Ruki* No fear, no fear—impossible, me almost tink you be myself—you look so like an angel.—Missy, no fear—massa himself be in de coach—hush! here she come.

'*He sits down at the table in the place of Charlotte.*

'*Enter Crepon, who gives a letter to Charlotte, and she goes off.*

'*Crepon.* Give dat to your master.—Well! did you take de tings. [*Ruki turning his back, makes signs with his elbow.*] You vil no speak?—ven milord come, he mak you speak, ma chère.—You have learn mak signs of de black voman—voulez-vous ôter le manteau?—you vil not pull it off?—milord vil teach you to mak signs—pardi, he teach you every ting.—I vil send and let him know you want to speak to him, though not to me———

'*Enter Lord Argent.*

'Ah, le voilà! Susan perhaps have tell him you come here.—Ah, milord! dere is you angel—la voilà! she is von sulk to me—go to her milord.—Oh, de blushing innocence! she vant to hide her face—go to her milord.—I vil leave you togeder charming pair!—dat be so made for von another. [*Exit.*

'*Lord A.* Can you, my adorable Charlotte, forgive the stratagems I have used to obtain you? do they not prove the ardour of my passion?—bewitching creature, why do you thus conceal those charms that are, that must be mine?—yes, dear girl, indeed you must be mine—then let me enjoy a willing prize.—What! not a word!—has not Crepon explain'd how vain is all resistance here?—then why this obstinate silence?—unveil those lovely features [*Takes Ruki's hand covered by a white glove.*] My whole soul thrills at the delicious touch.—Oh! my bewitching Charlotte—does silence give consent?—say, dear girl—it must be so;—still not a word?—nay, then 'tis so indeed—and thus to my aching bosom will I press my lovely blushing——Oh! [*Here Ruki seizes him round the waste, squeezing him, and throws him down, putting his knee on his stomach.*

'*Ruki* Ah! milord, I will press you aching bosom!—Oh, how I love!—tak dis—and dis—to make you soul tril vid de delizzy touch. [*Struggling and kicking.*

'*Lord A.* Help!—murder!—the devil!—help!—help!'

The fugitive pieces, which consist of a few occasional prologues and other effusions, are scarcely intitled to particular notice. The verses 'on a clog, found in the carriage which had taken home Miss Marsh, and two other ladies,' might obtain a place among the *Swiftiana*.

Though, in general, no friends to the easily acquired reputation of a parodist, we transcribe '*the Wish enjoyed*,' which is the counterpart of "*the Wish*" by the author of "the Pleasures of Memory:"

'So damp my cot beside the hill,
The bees have ceas'd to sooth my ear;
The willowy brook that turns the mill,
Is turn'd to please the Miller near.

'The swallow hous'd beneath my thatch,
Bedaubs my windows from her nest;
Instead of pilgrims at my latch,
Beggars and thieves disturb my rest.

'From out the ivy at my door,
Earwigs and snails are ever crawling;
Lucy now spins and sings no more,
Because her hungry brats are squalling.

'To village church, with priestly pride,
In vain the pointing spire is given,
Lucy, with *Wesley* for her guide,
Has found a shorter road to Heaven.'

On the whole, this second volume of *trifles* may contribute its share to beguile a vacant hour: but its contents are not such as are likely to produce either temporary delight, or permanent admiration.

Muir.

ART. X. *Archæologia*, or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity, &c. Vol. XIV.

[*Art. concluded from our last volume, page* 377.]

THE article which next occurs to our notice manifests learning, and may excite curiosity: it conveys an *Explanation of the Inscription on a Brick from the Scite of ancient Babylon, by the Rev.* Samuel Henley, *M. A. F. A. S.*—This brick has already been offered to the attention of the society by Dr. Hulme*. The present expositor apprehends that the inscription which it bears, expressed in Hebrew characters, distinctly exhibits two words, which literally signify, *a brick baked by the sun*; and this interpretation he endeavours to support, adding that, 'in

* No. X. of this Volume.

perfect accordance with this inscription are the hieroglyphical figures attending it.' Can we suppose a brick to have been thus inscribed?

William Owen, Esq. is, we doubt not, at once faithful, candid, and zealous in the account which he communicates of *antient Welsh Manuscripts*; 'preserved, for the most part, within the Principality, sources but little known to the inquisitive antiquary; sources, of which even the existence hath been doubted by the candid literati; and, I may add, of course denied by the captious, ever more indulgent to their own prejudices, than anxious to investigate the truth: but such must be unavoidably the case, with respect to a people, so circumstanced as we are in Wales, insulated from the nation at large by the barrier of a peculiar language; for, in this language is written every thing deemed worthy of preservation; and as none study it but ourselves, the whole remains, generally speaking, unknown to the rest of the world.' To establish the authenticity of Cambrian manuscripts, which has been questioned, is the great object of this short tract. As one means of effecting this end, the reader is directed to the treasures of British manuscripts in the possession of some of the leading families in the Principality; of which collections, several are particularly enumerated.—'The principal heads under which these stores of British learning may be classed, are, Poetry, Bardic Institutes, Laws, History, Theology, Ethics, Proverbs, Dramatic Tales, Grammars.'—Some antient manuscripts, it is well known, are little worthy of preservation, any farther than as they afford evidence in favour of others more deserving of regard.—'The *Mabinogion*, or juvenile amusements, being a kind of dramatic tales, are in themselves some of our most singular productions; and I have little hesitation in asserting them to have been the origin of romance-writing in Europe. It is to be lamented that, owing to the credulity, or want of penetration in our early chroniclers, the high colouring and the ideal action of these tales were incorporated into our national history; so that it is from thence we are to account for the character drawn of Arthur and his knights, with other extravagancies of a similar kind.'

Farther Discovery of Antiquities at Southfleet in Kent, communicated, as before, by the Rev. Peter Rasleigh, rector of that place.—On the removal of a pavement of stone, was found a sarcophaghus, or massy stone, divided into two parts, top and bottom, very nicely fitted in a groove: within the oval excavation, two large glass urns or vases were placed, containing remains of burnt bodies, with a transparent tasteless liquor, reaching, in one of them, to the very brim of the vessel. Two pairs of shoes were also found with them, much decayed by time,

but enough of them remaining to shew their form, and to prove that they had been very superb, and of very expensive workmanship. Some other objects, exciting inquiry even in their perishing state, were also discovered: but no inscription, mark, or coin, by means of which any judgment might be formed concerning the time of interment, or the family to which the spot belonged. Four plates accompany this short letter, one of which ascertains the foundation of the building, or walls, which surrounded the tombs.

The *three Roman Urns, together with a Cromlech, found in different parts of Cornwall*, are not unworthy of notice:—we can merely insert a few lines with which the Rev. Malachi Hitchin finishes the account. Having mentioned the parish of Ludgvan, in which one of the urns was deposited, it is added:—'In this same parish is situated the *well of Collurion*, famous in time immemorial for its ophthalmic virtues; and it is a very singular circumstance, that it never occurred to any of the historians of Cornwall, Dr. Borlase, the rector of this parish, not excepted, that the name of this well is pure Greek, κολλυριον, a medicine for the eyes. How it was called by this name is a subject of curious inquiry and research.'—Mr. Hitchin concludes that it could not be given by the Phœnicians who traded here for tin, since their language has so great an affinity with the Hebrew, nor can he think that the Greeks had any traffic in these parts. He apprehends that Greek soldiers, sometimes incorporated in the Roman armies, might have received benefit from these waters, and also have given this name to the well.

A short account is given by the Rev. James Dallaway, *of the Walls of Constantinople:* but we are, perhaps, unreasonable in expecting more than is here offered. We learn, however, from this relation, that there are three distinct walls, and ditches between each of them: the one nearest to the city is said to be from 60 to 80 feet high, and from 10 to 15 in breadth, with very wide battlements or embrasures resembling those at Caernarvon or Conway. At the distance of about 50 yards, a tower, more frequently hexagonal than of any other shape, but seldom square, rises 20 feet above the wall; and on this series of towers, greater architectural skill seems to have been exerted than on those of the outer walls. Several of them now attract the eye, as having the names of the emperors inserted, by whom they had been restored;—these names are formed in marble or iron, in pieces of about a yard long. The fosse is 25 feet broad, and now divided into gardens for the culture of melons or tobacco.—In the second wall, the towers correspond with those of the first, but are

generally semi-circular, and open on the inside, many feet lower, and more frequently dilapidated: they are likewise of much inferior workmanship.—Concerning the exterior or third wall, we are informed that it is still easy to trace it: but it was never decorated nor defended by towers, and has so far yielded to the ravages of war and time as to shew a very unequal outline.—When we reflect, according to this writer's description, that 'these are objects of so much historical consequence, exhibiting a picturesque grandeur unequalled in any part of Europe,' we incline to wish still for farther details, and appropriate observations. We are disposed to inquire about buildings and places *adjacent to the walls:* we are ready to ask, What remnants are there of the Hippodrome, once so distinguished for the opposite scenes of gaiety, festivity, triumph and grandeur, of horrors and cruelties, massacres, tumults and desolations;—the Hippodrome, where we beheld among other objects the conceited and arrogant Justinian, with his infamous wife, when seated on exalted thrones, humbling and maltreating their faithful General Bellisarius;—where we have also seen that astonishing versatile genius, that faithless, enterprizing, ferocious, yet sometimes useful, villain Andronicus II. suddenly and unexpectedly seized, when at the very pinnacle of magnificence and pleasure,—hurried away to two remarkable pillars in the Hippodrome, between which he was suspended by the heels,—and there, amid taunts and provocations, reproaches and contempt, wounds and injuries most insufferable, he lingered for hours, till at length death gave him a release!

Observations on the Ogmian Hercules of Lucian, and on the derivation of the word Ogham, by Stephen Weston, *B. D. F. R. S. and F. A. S.* In the first volume of *Archæologia*, at the distance now of more than fifty years, appeared a dissertation on the above subject, with which this is immediately connected. It is learned and curious, but admits not of any farther notice from us than to announce it thus briefly; for though not very long, it consists of extracts from Lucian, which we cannot abridge, and other remarks concerning the Celts, the Scythians, the Shanscreet, the language of Iran, &c. requiring explications and remarks which will not well comport with our prescribed boundaries and intention.

Copy of an original Manuscript, containing Orders made by Henry, Prince of Wales, concerning his Household, in 1610. The conduct of this worthy young man seemed to predict honour and usefulness for future years, but Heaven's high order directed otherwise. We appear to have here a specimen of his prudence, good sense, and piety: his instructions have also a manly,

manly, benevolent, and generous air, and are little tinctured with that arbitrary tone and spirit which, from his father's high sentiments of divine right and prerogative, and the predominant notions of the time concerning kingly power, might have been expected. It is observable that he begins with reflections relative to religion and it's offices; and as he entered on these orders with such sentiments, he is willing to conclude them in a similar strain.—Yet partial as we incline to be to those who employ rational and gentle measures for the religious assistance of servants and others under their care, we cannot cordially approve the mandates which insist in a peremptory strain that all the branches of a family shall, four times in the year, attend and receive the communion. Such injunctions, it is known, have been delivered, even by those who did not observe the institution themselves, or perhaps allow it's authority. The meaning of the prince was doubtless good; although the topic of liberty was not, in his day, well understood, either by the governed or the governor. We are much gratified to remark that his highness entered his protest against the wicked and most dishonourable practice of duelling, and thus effectually demonstrated the reality and the steadiness of his piety and virtue.—This manuscript is accompanied, in the notes, by extracts from a tract, said to be rare, intitled, "A discourse of the most illustrious Prince Henry, late Prince of Wales, written anno 1626, by Sir Charles Cornwallis, sometime treasurer of his Highness's house," which may serve to illustrate these orders.

An *Appendix* presents us with partial communications from papers which it has not been deemed proper to publish entire. —Among these, we observe several subjects of a curious nature, such as,—an original grant, and an original charter, in the reigns of Edward III. and Henry III. with the appendant seals; —strange wooden figures found in Jamaica; yet somewhat of a like kind, if we mistake not, have deen discovered in other parts;—a small *bronze lar* of Mars, with two inscriptions;—antient culinary vessels of copper, remarkably thin;—an antient cross, from the church-yard of Somersby, Lincolnshire;—a curious, bell-metal hunting pot, of remote antiquity, adorned by numerous figures relative, as it should seem, to the chace, with an attending motto, *Je su pot de graunt honhur, Viaunde a fere de bon savhur:* it is in the possession of the Hon. Colonel Greville;—an iron candlestick, of times far remote, found with others in the bed of the River Witham, Lincolnshire;—a medal, commemorating Charles I. of the size of a crown piece; the device is somewhat singular, being a diamond on an anvil, with a hammer on it; the word *Inexpug-*

nabilis added to the other part of the inscription: 1648;—a mutilated head of stone, presenting itself in the year 1797 in the ruins of an old flint-wall at Merton in Surrey, having been once a part of the antient walls of Merton Abbey, Surrey; when found, the head was painted, and the coronet gilded: whether it is to be numbered with *memorabilia* of any great value, the learned Society does not inform us. Something more is said concerning a profile, or head in *basso relievo*, dug from among the ruins of Persepolis; comprized in a short, but, in our view, respectable paragraph, extracted from a letter written by Richard Stracey, Esq. and dated Ispahan, Oct. 9, 1800. Visiting, with others, these celebrated demolitions, their grandeur exceeded all Mr. Stracey's expectation; he wished to bring away some carved figure, but obtained only this remarkable head, with a curled beard and hair, which he concludes 'must have belonged to the grand procession, ornamenting the walls of that staircase leading to what is termed the *hall of columns*.'

We find also a list of presents to the Society, since the appearance of the last volume, together with a catalogue of those prints which have been published in the *Vetusta Monumenta*. We regard it as honourable to this scientific fraternity, that, having amended some errors in a plate belonging to the 13th volume of this work, they now, with each copy of the present, give a corrected impression. The engravings form a valuable and entertaining part of this miscellany, and are executed, in general, with much accuracy and taste.

H.

ART. XI. *The Policy and Interest of Great Britain, with respect to Malta, summarily considered.* 8vo. pp. 156. 3s. 6d. sewed. Hatchard. 1805.

THE frequent reference in this tract to points of public law, and the manner in which the subject is treated, seem to us to indicate that its author is an able and learned civilian, who holds a high station in the island to which it relates: but whether this surmise be correct or not, certain it is that the comprehensive views, the varied information, and the masterly language, which distinguish the performance before us, would well become any rank or profession. It is at the same time far from being a laboured production, for it bears all the marks of haste; and the sole object of the writer appears to have been to submit his important materials to the view of the reader, without attending to any thing like plan and arrangement. He has collected together a great portion of matter, (whether all that

was

was to be procured, we cannot determine) which relates to his subject: but with it is mixed some that might have been spared without prejudice. Abundance of reasoning is produced in aid of his conclusion, but it is blended with much more, the relevancy of which we are unable to discern. To a sufficient number of cogent arguments, he adds those which evidently fall short of their object; and we think that he weakens his cause by the superabundance of means which he brings forwards in its support.

The point for which the author gravely and deliberately contends is nothing short of this position, that the fate of Britain is suspended to the rock of Malta; 'a rock,' he says, 'which is placed in the very center of the Mediterranean: possessing a port in which the British navy might moor, and presenting a coast impregnable, if but moderately defended, by any assault; guarding the whole of the Levant, and effectually controuling the naval movements of France on the East in that sea.' He also describes this station as the most valuable and formidable fortress on the surface of the globe. 'It is to Britain,' he tells us, 'another Gibraltar, a pass of Thermopylæ.' If England retains this possession, a limit will be set to the acquisitions of Bonaparte; if she quits her hold of it, this invaluable spot falls inevitably into the hands of France; Egypt, the gate and vestibule of the East, as it is here called, follows; the bar to universal empire, now standing in the way of that state, is removed; and she will soon behold a captive world at her feet.—Strange as this statement sounds, let no one treat it as chimerical and visionary, till he has perused the pages in which it is expressed.

New circumstances in the world obliged Britain to become a Mediterranean power; and to act in this character, the permanent possession of Gibraltar and the occasional occupation of Minorca, it is observed, became necessary. In like manner, the late changes render it equally requisite to the maintenance of the same preponderance in future, with that which Britain held in past times, that she should possess the additional post of Malta. France, he says, has been for a very long time duly sensible of the importance of this fortress; and he refers to the famous memoir of Leibnitz, and to several public and private documents, in confirmation of his assertion. Without it, Britain cannot maintain her wonted relations with the markets of Italy and Greece, with the ports of the Levant, with the Black Sea, and with the coast of Barbary: nor can we otherwise keep the balance even between us and Russia, on account of the late acquisitions of that state on the Black Sea. The immense central power of the French empire is only to be

compressed

compressed within any reasonable limits, by a contact between the Russian and British ports as well in the Mediterranean and its adjoining seas, as in the Baltic. 'By means of Malta, we shall not only come into a sure contact, but we shall be able to form a *strong articulation* with the Russian power, in the point where the enemy is most to be feared; and thus to establish and render perfect a system of compression, which, if maintained with suitable persistency and vigour, and its force successively communicated to the intermediate states, must in the end exhaust and subdue the central violence.'

The author next shews the importance of this island in an event which he deprecates, but which, though improbable at present, may happen hereafter, namely, an union between Russia and France in opposition to the British empire. The prospect of the long foreboded crush of the Turkish power imposes on us, he thinks, the obligation of not abandoning this post.

'It will be of incalculable importance that we should be present, in force, amidst the scenes of rapine and usurpation that will immediately attend that catastrophe. It will be indispensably necessary, at such a period, that we should vigorously watch the conduct of France: that we should be able to persecute her with our vigilance, and distract her by our ubiquity; that we should frustrate all her prospects of rapacity; and by the strongest measures that sagacity can devise, or vigour effect, insure her exclusion from Egypt, and so destroy in the source, all the train of disasters that must otherwise ensue upon her acquiring possession of that coveted territory.'

We think that the author directs most of his superfluous labour to the question of our right to retain this strong place. *Our right*, on the footing of conquest, cannot be disputed for a moment; and all the sanction is given to our claim which the best title can have, when it is shewn to be the unanimous and unequivocal wish of the Maltese that his Majesty should exercise the supreme authority over them. Charles V., in assigning the dominion of the island, violated a solemn written contract of his ancestors with its inhabitants. He forfeited for ever, by this cession, the claims of himself and his house to the sovereignty; and it reverted to the people, with the right of putting it in exercise, whenever they should be in a situation so to act. They found themselves in this situation on the dissolution of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, when, with the aid of Great Britain, the French were driven out of their territory; and thus invested with their original rights, they freely and solemnly entreated to be admitted into the allegiance of the British crown. Admitting, however, the reversion of the sovereignty to be in the crown of the two Sicilies, this cannot

cannot affect the right of the crown of England; since the king of Naples is not in a situation to assert and support his claims, and to guard the possession against the enemy and rival of Great Britain.—When the author, in order to corroborate our claims, founds a title on the intent of the grant, he egregiously fails. If the reversion of the sovereignty of Malta has fallen in, the party in whom it vests has a choice whether to grant it out again or not; and if he resolves in the affirmative he is doubtless to select the person with whom he will invest it. The right of Great Britain to retain Malta, as founded on conquest, on the extinction of the antient sovereign, and on the voluntary tender of allegiance by the Maltese, stands on a foundation as firm as the island itself. How it is affected by the treaty of Amiens is a great question, and one that is here little considered; the author being satisfied that the aggressions of Bonaparte forced us into a war, and released us from the terms of that compact before his right to have them inforced commenced.

Another topic occurs in this part, which we insert rather for its curiosity than its importance:

'In enumerating the *political* powers which we derive from the occupation of Malta, we are not to overlook a most efficacious *moral* power; of which we likewise became possessed, the moment that the genius of Britain, the evil genius of Buonaparte, first took post upon that island. Already has his empire of darkness suffered molestation from the proximity and splendour of truth; the rays of which, diffused from the centre of Malta, have cast their light upon the opposite coasts. Already the illumination of a free press, discreetly used, and judiciously directed, has begun to dissipate the mists of error and deception which enveloped that wide horizon *. Already the system of falsehood and deceit, by which the tyrant governs the minds of his subject nations, has experienced some counteraction from that efficacious engine; and he himself, and his tyranny, stand now fully exposed to the public view of Italy, of Greece and the Levant.'—

'The parts of Europe where the French and German languages principally prevail, are, unfortunately, under the controlling scourge of France; but that extensive range where the Italian language is the common medium of intercourse, I mean, the entire circuit of the Mediterranean Sea, is placed completely within our reach by possessing Malta. At this central, this umbilical point, the genius of truth has now established his oracle: an oracle, more truly divine and terrific than that of Delphi; from whence he can utter his voice to the surround-

'* For several months past, an Italian paper has been published weekly in Malta, the object of which may be inferred from what is here said. This paper, actively distributed in the Mediterranean by the opportunities which our naval superiority must ever command, is perused with avidity, not only in the islands of Greece, but on the coast of Asia Minor, and at the regencies upon the coast of Africa.'

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ing nations, and dispense in every direction the rays of that searching light, which Buonaparte labours to shut out from his dark and evil empire, by every contrivance of artifice and force. And shall we now extinguish that salutary light, merely because Buonaparte

"——— tells us, how he hates its beams!"

The following passages display patriotic and enlightened views, which well deserve the attention of those under whose consideration they may fall, and which will secure to the author the esteem of all good men:

'There still remains another question for the consideration of our national justice and honour—a question of very grave and serious importance: How are we to retain Malta, and by what principles are we to rule it? Certainly not like some new island in the Charibean Sea, or Western Ocean; to be colonized by Englishmen, and worked by slaves. We have discovered no new island, neither have we extended the limits of our colonial system. In annexing Malta to the British dominions, we adopt a portion of the ancient world; we receive among our numbers, and incorporate into our empire, an ancient race; a people, who reverence religion and law, and who value legitimate freedom and civil enjoyment; a people, who possess a strong national character, many excellent natural capacities, traditional partialities and disgusts, ancient and acknowledged privileges, activity and courage, loyalty and honour; and in whom all these qualities will acquire increased force, as soon as their feelings shall have recovered from the torpor caused by the incumbent pressure of the knights' government; and as soon as they shall have derived some degree of elation and confidence, from participating in the common strength and dignity of the British Empire.

'Admonished by the remembrance of Corsica, we shall not attempt to remould the Maltese upon the form of the British constitution; but, following the duty prescribed by our relation towards them, we shall secure to them the perpetuity of those native usages, which long local experience, and hereditary partialities, prescribe for their own government.

"The sole right of the conqueror is derived from justifiable self-defence. If the conqueror thinks proper to retain the sovereignty of the conquered country, and has a right to retain it, the same principles must also determine the manner in which he is to treat that state:—On the submission of the people he is bound *to govern them according to the laws of the state*"

'If such would have been the incontestible right of the Maltese had they been conquered in arms against Great Britain, how much more justly is it so, when they themselves were confederate parties with her in the conquest, which expelled the common enemy, and placed their country in her power? The common interest that now unites England and Malta, calls for the constant presence of a representative of the British Crown in that Island; on the one hand, to secure the interests of that Crown in Malta; and on the other, to afford to the people a perpetual evidence, and prompt experience, of the royal protection. But all that this common interest demands, in civil matters, is the

presence

presence of his Majesty's civil representative, and of the few individuals immediately requisite to give effect to the duties of his office. In every other particular, the ancient civil establishment of the island is complete in the hands of its native inhabitants: thereby happily precluding the introduction of the most pernicious evil that could possibly creep in, to undermine and destroy our credit and security in the possession of this valuable dependency—a jobbing system, for the increase of patronage at home.'

If the author be able to convince the British public that Malta is of the awful importance which he represents, the animated and eloquent apostrophes which he addresses to it at the close of his work cannot fail of their desired effect. Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JUNE, 1805.

TRAVELS.

Art. 12. *Journey into South Wales*, through the Counties of Oxford, Warwick, Worcester, Hereford, Salop, Stafford, Buckingham, and Hertford, in the Year 1799. By George Lipscomb, Esq. 8vo. pp. 450. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1802.

THOUGH this volume is designated an account of a journey into South Wales, only 140 of its pages are devoted to that country; and Hafod, and the neighbourhood of the Devil's Bridge, are the sole places at which the author appears to have made any halt. He did not enter Pembrokeshire, Glamorganshire, nor Monmouthshire; the latter of which, though included in an English circuit, should never be overlooked in journies taken for such purposes as that of Mr. Lipscomb. Many objects are omitted, of which other travellers have spoken; except in the above instances, Mr. L. never deviates from the main road; and with regard to these, his information is more scanty and less accurate than that which has been afforded by his predecessors.—Nearly a hundred pages are occupied in describing the author's peregrination from Buckingham to London; and upwards of fifty monumental inscriptions, given at length, and in CAPITAL LETTERS, much contribute to fill this space.—The whole forms a very superficial and flimsy detail.

Mr. Lipscomb introduces his narrative by a hardy attack on all periodical critics; and were he now living *, he would perhaps attribute our unfavourable opinion of it to resentment of this hostility. We may state, however, that, if his hypercriticisms excited in us any such feelings, we have kept his work on our table long enough to subdue them, and that our judgment of its merits remains the same. Jo.—G.2.

NOVELS.

Art. 13. *The Lake of Killarney*. By Anna Maria Porter. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Inoffensiveness is the only praise which the fair author of this

* The papers lately announced his decease.

novel

novel claims to herself. It is represented to have been written during the languid hours of an infirm state of health, for amusement rather than for fame; and it is now offered to the public, not for their criticism, but to afford them an opportunity of partaking in the pleasure which the writer derived from the composition of the work.—Under this information, we shall not be so ungallant as to exercise any severity of remark; on the contrary, we shall willingly observe that many parts of this novel claim more than the praise of inoffensiveness, for they are pleasing and well written, although the thread which connects the story together does not continually serve to conduct the reader along through the winding paths. We attribute this defect to the state of the author's health, which probably interrupted the chain of ideas, and weakened their mutual dependance on each other. Mag.

Art. 14. *The Unexpected Legacy.* By Mrs. Hunter, of Norwich. 12mo. 2 Vols. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

It must be allowed that the moral tendency of a production of this nature, and the invitations which it holds out to a course of virtue, as well as to rectitude of intentions, are points of considerable importance; and we are happy to observe in the present instance, not less than in former publications from the pen of Mrs. Hunter, that this merit undoubtedly attaches to the fair author. The work does not admit of any concise description of its outline, since it includes several intermediate narratives, which are each distinct and separate stories: a mode of conducting a novel which divides and subdivides the interest and the attention of the reader; insomuch that we warn him not to be surprised if, after having read the 'Unexpected Legacy,' he should scarcely recollect at the conclusion either the nature of the bequest or the merits of the donor. D.o

Art. 15. *What you please*, or Memoirs of Modern Characters. 12mo. 4 Vols. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The hero of this tale is a young man of singular merit and accomplishments, whose narrow circumstances induce him to accept the office of tutor in a nobleman's family. While he resides in this situation, a mutual affection between the hero and the amiable daughter of the nobleman lays a foundation for their future union. Various events intervene to procrastinate this happy event; some of which will amuse, and others perhaps will appear tedious to the reader. The writer displays ability in describing characters, and their peculiar turns of temper; and he shews himself, in many instances, a good observer of the springs and motives which influence the conduct of individuals in the commerce of life. A number of quotations from classical authors are also introduced, which inform us that the writer is a man of education. The ambition which he expresses, that the moral tendency of his work should be approved, is much in his favor; and we recollect but one instance in which he has deviated from so laudable a design, viz. the indulgence which he is disposed to allow to what are called 'occasional gallantries.' D.o

Art. 16. *Modern Literature.* By Robert Bisset, L. L. D. 3 Vols. 12mo. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

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It is with reluctance and regret that we withhold our general approbation from this performance: but we must confess that we were much disappointed at discovering in these volumes passages of such a nature and tendency, as a sense of decorum would forbid us to detail. In other respects, the novel is not of an interesting kind. Its object is to delineate the manners of the times, and particularly those of persons engaged in departments of literature: but, although a great number of personages are introduced, the author has no felicity in developing and unfolding the peculiar distinctions and shades of character. Hence the reader is not more interested in a narrative of this kind, than in a newspaper anecdote, where certain actions are ascribed to certain individuals, but no opportunity is presented of forming what is equivalent to a personal acquaintance with the character recorded. This defect must necessarily render all biography, whether real or fictitious, less interesting in proportion to its extent; and in avoiding this fault, consist the great art and secret of fascinating and rivetting the mind of the reader; as Fielding, Smollett, and our other eminent writers in this walk have so happily illustrated in their writings.

The papers inform us that Dr. Bisset is lately dead. Man.s

Art. 17. *Jessica Mandeville*, or the Woman of Fortune. By Miriam Malden. 12mo. 5 Vols. 17s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Those painful emotions, which are raised in the bosom of the reader by the relation of persecutions and indignities offered to an innocent and unprotected female, are here not a little relieved by the anticipation which he bears along with him through the lengthened story, that some delightful remuneration will arrive at the conclusion, as the merited reward both of the heroine's and his own patience. Thus it was that while we were reading the tearful tale of Jessica Mandeville, more wearied than interested by her woes, we endured the toil like the faithful pilgrim, "hoping unto the end." The termination of her sorrows in a happy marriage was as satisfactory as we could wish; and although we are unable to class her eventful history among the most polished or most fascinating productions of the kind, yet, in regard to good morals and religious principles, we doubt not that every reader will accord with us in forming a favorable opinion of the author. Do

Art. 18. *Village Anecdotes*; or the Journal of a Year, from Sophia to Edward. With occasional Poems. By Mrs. Le Noir. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. sewed. Vernor and Hood.

The usual occurrences of a village life are not calculated in themselves to excite sufficient interest in the detail, but require to be accompanied with certain incidents which awaken generous emotions in the reader, and make an appeal to his heart.—The mere relation of morning-visits or morning walks, of the conversation of Mr. Ewer, or the miscarriage of Mrs. Bertram, of a party sitting down to the tea table, or preparing jellies for their company, will furnish but an insipid treat, and can excite no particular sensations of either a pleasurable or a painful nature. The diction of this work is also extremely low and colloquial. Do

Art.

Art. 19. *Casualties.* By Mary Goldsmith. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. sewed. J. Hookham.

A perseverance in the path of virtue gives stability to the mind in every struggle of life, insures the possession of inward peace, and eventually leads to happiness and honour. In the history of Sabina, whose occupation is that of a mantua-maker, this truth is here illustrated; and after many trials and conflicts with adversity, (such as having her house burnt down and her goods spoiled, being taken to prison for debt, &c. &c.) the virtuous Sabina is established by marriage in an honorable situation of life.—Learn, ye mantua-makers all, from this instructive lesson, to mind your needles, and earn a "virtuous bit of bread."—As a composition, this novel boasts no high merit. Man.s

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 20. *The Destruction of Jerusalem an absolute and irresistible Proof of the Divine Origin of Christianity:* including a Narrative of the Calamities which befel the Jews, as far as they tend to verify our Lord's Predictions relative to that Event. With a brief Description of the City and Temple. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sael. 1805.

Though this subject has been very often discussed, it has rarely been placed in a more striking and impressive manner before the public, than by the present writer; who has undertaken thus to abridge and consolidate this part of the evidence in support of the truth of the Gospel, to confirm the wavering faith of christians, and to shake the vain confidence of unbelievers. Historic facts are produced in proof of the complete fulfilment of every part of the predictions in the New Testament, respecting the destruction of the city and temple of Jerusalem. The author gives too much credit, however, to the *prodigies* said by Josephus to have preceded this awful catastrophe; and perhaps his comment on the *heifer*, which brought forth a *lamb* in the temple at the time of the Passover, might have been spared. It is remarked as worthy of particular observation, that 'the day on which Titus encompassed Jerusalem was the feast of the Passover; *i. e.* the anniversary of that memorable period in which the Jews crucified their Messiah!'

We are inclined to think that this writer lays too much stress on the accuracy of Josephus. For the general facts, he may be trusted: but some of his details may be questioned. He exalts the power of his own nation even in recording its subversion. According to him, the population of Jerusalem, when it was besieged by Titus, amounted to nearly *two millions* of people: but if the trench which surrounded Jerusalem was only thirty-nine furlongs in length, *i. e.* less than five miles, is it credible that two millions of people could be contained within a city of so inconsiderable a circumference as Jerusalem must have been?

To the several objections which have been urged against this part of the evidences of the truth of christianity, sensible answers are returned; and the author invites the infidel to consider how highly improbable it is that these predictions, so accurately corresponding with the subsequent horrors, were no more than the fortunate guesses of the person to whom they are ascribed.

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'If it be here objected, that, because wars are events of frequent occurrence, it would be improper to refer to supernatural foresight a successful prediction respecting them, it is replied, that much of this objection will be removed, by considering the incompetency of even statesmen themselves to foretel the condition, only for a few years, of the very nation whose affairs they administer. It is a well-known fact, that the present minister of Great Britain, on the very eve of the late long and destructive war with the French Republic, held out to this country a picture of fifteen successive years of peace and prosperity. Indeed, the nice points on which peace and war often depend, baffle all calculations from *present* aspects; and a *rumour of war*, so loud and so alarming, as even to suspend the operations of husbandry, may terminate, as we have just seen, in nothing *but rumour*. Further, let it be considered, that the wars to which this part of our Lord's prophecy referred, were to be of *two* kinds, and that the event corresponded accordingly; that they occurred within the period to which he had assigned them; that they fell with the most destructive severity on the *Jews*, to whom the prophecy at large chiefly related, and that the person who predicted them was not in the condition of a *statesman*, but in that of *a carpenter's son!*'

In conclusion, the author exhorts us to take warning from the fate of Jerusalem. Mo-y.

Art. 21. *An Essay on the Christian Sabbath*, including Remarks on Sunday-Drilling. By Joseph Hughes, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Williams.

The obligation to observe the sabbath, it is here maintained, is not confined to the Jewish polity, but, like the rest of the commandments, this, which enjoins the duty of appropriating one day in seven to purposes of religion, is general, and to be obeyed by all nations. Whether this position may be allowed or not, the institution itself is undoubtedly most excellent; and although we have no wish to see the seventh day characterized by fanatical austerity, we regret that it is so often wholly employed in secular pursuits and amusements. The pamphlet before us is well written, and evinces an amiable zeal in the author for the preservation of religion in these degenerate days. Man.

Art. 22. *A Manual of Religious Knowledge;* for the Use of Sunday Schools, and of the Poor in general. By the Rev. J. Grant. 12mo. 2s. Hatchard.

Expositions of the church catechism, this author justly remarks, are oftentimes more difficult to be understood than the catechism itself: but his object has been, in this treatise, to make men plain christians, rather than controversialists; and he asserts, from experience, that it is calculated to answer the end designed. We should not, perhaps, approve of every part of this treatise: but it appears in general adapted to the use of the poorer classes; and the advice given to those who have the management of Sunday schools is worth their attention. Do

Art. 23. *Three Plain Reasons against separating from the Established Church.* By Edward Pearson, B. D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

Unity in religion is desirable:—not, however, as Dr. Clarke remarks, "unity of opinion in the bond of ignorance, nor unity of profession in the bond of hypocrisy; but *unity of the spirit in the bond of peace.*" Mr. Pearson is solicitous to promote unity in a more confined sense; and as members of one civil community, it is desirable, in many views, to banish, as much as may be possible, religious differences: but we must change the nature of the human mind, before we can induce all people to think alike. It is here contended, 1st, that *unity* among Christians is enjoined in Scripture; 2dly, that uniformity of public worship among Christians, who are in habits of intercourse with each other, is a necessary means of preserving unity; and 3dly, that to join in the established form of public worship is a part of that obedience which we owe to our civil rulers. All the advocates for religious liberty, whether they belong to, or dissent from, the Establishment, will demur to this last reason; it proves too much; it makes the civil magistrate the lord of conscience; and it involves Daniel and the Jewish worthies, the original preachers of the Gospel, and the protestant reformers, in much blame. It is the duty of Christians to consider well the consequences of divisions, and to avoid, on slight pretexts, a separation from the dominant church: but the right to follow the sincere dictates of conscience must be maintained, or an intolerable spiritual tyranny would be established;—a tyranny less defensible even than that of the Church of Rome, which does not refer the decisions of faith to a temporal, but to a spiritual head. If Mr. P. re-considers his arguments, he must, we are persuaded, find them inconclusive. Much as uniformity of public worship is to be desired, it is not a *necessary* means of preserving unity. Men of liberal minds will agree to differ, and love one another, though they cannot assent to the same theological doctrines. Few will be hardy enough to revive the old conscience-saving principle of *exoteric* and *esoteric* doctrines; or define how far tacit acquiescence in public systems is to be extended. Mr. Pearson, however, intimates that Dissenters ought to wait for alterations in the Establishment, since the Church does not shut the door to improvements. The Dissenter, we fear, will say, "This is only plaistering over the wound which I wish you to cure. My daily devotion cannot live on such kind of faith and patience."

Mr. P. totally misconceives the subject of Toleration, as it exists in this country; and here the whole of his third reason falls to the ground. By the Toleration Act, the Dissenting Church becomes *an* established Church. Circumstances are prescribed respecting her public worship; and her ministers, conforming to the law, are allowed certain immunities.

Mo-y.

Art. 24. *Three Plain Reasons for the Practice of Infant-Baptism.* By Edward Pearson, B. D. &c. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

Mr. P.'s three reasons are, '1. that Infant-Baptism among Christians corresponds with infant-circumcision among the Jews. 2. That it is highly probable that Infant-Baptism has been practised by the

generality of Christians ever since the days of the Apostles. 3. That supposing the practice to be an error, it is an error on the safer side.' Here again this pious divine's last argument is the weakest, and might have been omitted. Let Infant-Baptism be proved to be sanctioned by apostolic usage, and the anti-pædobaptist will give up the controversy; superseding the necessity of discussing the danger of leaving unbaptized infants 'to the *uncovenanted mercies* of God.' Mo-y.

Art. 25. *An Admonition against Lay-Preaching.* By Edward Pearson, B. D. &c. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

To assume the office of a public religious instructor, and to undertake to explain and enforce the sacred oracles, without some kind of qualification, is a species of presumption and arrogance which merits the severest rebuke; and Mr. Pearson's admonition would have had more force, had it been restricted to individuals of this description: but now, according to his definition of Lay-Preachers,—viz. those who have not been ordained by Bishops, or by presbyters of the Church of Scotland,—Lardner, Doddridge, and Leland were lay-preachers; men, compared to whom, for biblical science, the generality of the regular clergy in every church are mere pigmies. For such enlightened divines to preach is no '*sin*;' to hear them is no '*folly*.' Why did not Mr. P. take stronger ground? Why will he gravely tell us that the three Jewish orders, High-Priests, Priests, and Levites, correspond to Bishops, Priests, and Deacons, in the Christian Church? Has Mr. P. ever studied the Constitution and Discipline of the Primitive Church? As he lays the whole stress of his argument on *regular* ordination, and as 'the ceremony of regular ordination is *necessarily* left to be determined by each national church;' he makes it impossible for any dissenting church to have regular ministers, be they ever so well instructed in their own colleges, and ever so solemnly ordained according to their own forms.—Such reasoning, at the present day, will excite no conviction. Dº

Art. 26. *Three Discourses*, by the late Rev. William Turner, of Wakefield. 8vo. pp. 73. Johnson.

The subjects of these discourses are,—Public worship, with its proper qualifications;—The shortness of human life;—and The future happiness of Christians, particularly as an admission to the society of *the spirits of just men made perfect*. If the style and composition be not wholly without faults or defects, yet they are in this respect superior to many sermons which issue from the press; and, which is far more important, they are formed by thought and study; not in a hasty but in a cautious manner, presenting weighty and useful truths to our regard. They are altogether practical, and recommend what is so, in a manner which is convincing and impressive: the last, we think, is the most animated, and calculated both to console and invigorate the Christian in this state of imperfection and vicissitude.

As to numbers who are prone to be hasty, presumptuous, and positive, it might be happy for the world, and wise for themselves, if they received and considered one remark which here presents itself respecting the Scriptures, when it is said,—'revelation furnishes all the requisite means for practice, but not to satisfy speculative curiosity. The

only method to preserve ourselves from perplexity, when we attempt to meditate on these arduous subjects, is to be humbly sensible of our weakness, and *to suspend our judgment* concerning them till we arrive at that state of perfection, in which they shall be more fully displayed: for the spirits of the just are described as free from these embarrassments.' Hi.

Art. 27. *Reflections on the Neglect of religious Education*; more particularly addressed to Godfathers, Godmothers, Parents, and Ministers; with a few Thoughts on Sunday Schools and Sunday-Drilling. 12mo. 4d. Longman and Co.

That Godfathers and Godmothers promise too much, and perform too little;—that Baptism and Confirmation are regarded as mere forms;—that the engagements of the Sponsors and the prayer of the Bishop are in general alike inefficacious;—are truths on which every species of animadversion has been exercised. The remarks before us are serious and well-meant, but have nothing in them peculiarly striking, and will probably share the fate of similar strictures. If on the subject of education the writer justly complains that children learn to repeat the Catechism, &c. by rote, he ought also to consider that their instructors often put to them questions which their capacity cannot comprehend, and make not proper allowance for the immatured intellects of their pupils. The gentleman who asked a child at a Sunday school, after he had read the epistle in which St. Paul says that "he wished to depart and be with Christ," whether he also wished to die, might be a very good, but was certainly a very weak, man. Mo.y.

Art. 28. *An Answer to the Question, Why are you a Christian?* By John Clarke, D. D. of Boston, New England. 7th Edition. 12mo. 6d. Conder.

The late Dr. Clarke was a man highly respected in America for his talents and virtues, and the publication of this little tract extended his well-merited reputation. We have no where seen the important question, here proposed, discussed with more clearness and effect; and Dr. Clarke reasons in behalf of Christianity like a man who has carefully examined and is thoroughly convinced by its Evidences. The intrinsic excellence of Christianity, both in its doctrinal and preceptive parts,—the circumstances of its early history,—the completion of prophecy,—and the character and miracles of Christ,—form the ground-work of the argument; the last, however, Dr. Clarke particularly examines in order to reach the case of those infidels, of which many are to be found in America, who admit the unexampled character and doctrines of Christ, but deny his miraculous power. Such half-christianity is here exposed as inadmissible.

'Many, who reject the claims, and deny the miracles of Jesus Christ, admit the moral excellency of his character. A greater inconsistency cannot be conceived! What, is it no offence against the laws of morality to appeal to works never performed; and to pretend to the exercise of powers which never existed? Are deliberate falsehood, imposition, and hypocrisy, to be erased from the catalogue of crimes? Is impiety no stain? And to die with an obstinate and inflexible

inflexible adherence to false pretensions,—is there nothing immoral in such behaviour? I confess I have very different views of right and wrong. And I feel a strong conviction, that falsehood and deceit, for whatever purpose they may be employed, and to whatever end they may be directed, are to the last degree criminal and disgraceful; yet this accusation must be brought against Jesus Christ, if he did no miracles, and was only a self-commissioned reformer.'

The doctrines and the miracles of Christ certainly rest on the same evidence, and must stand or fall together. Moy.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 29. *Important Hints and Reflections on the present State of the Infantry Forces in general belonging to this Empire;* suggesting feasible Measures of rendering every Battalion of the *Volunteer Forces* of this Kingdom very far superior, in the most essential Points of Service, to the present State of the *Guards*, if not to any regular Regiment in Europe, in the short Space of *one Month*, &c. &c. By a very humble Patriot. 8vo. 2s. 6d Lloyd.

Very high-sounding words and great promises appear in this title; yet the author's suggestions are few and plain. He maintains that the Guards, and all other Infantry regiments, (with an exception of the 52d) are extremely deficient in the primary and drill-rules for the formation of a soldier, particularly in those of the 1st and 5th sections of the *Rules and Regulations*, relative to the *Position of the Soldier* without Arms, and the *Position in marching:* that the Volunteers are in course equally so; and that, by studiously drilling them for a month, in these essential points, the consequence would be that superiority to the regulars which the title-page holds forth. The author is undoubtedly well founded in his remarks on the great importance of these parts of a soldier's education, and in his statement of the imperfection generally prevailing with respect to them; more especially among the volunteers: but we doubt whether the remedy which he proposes be equally free from controversy, as to practicability and efficiency. The compliments paid to the 52d regiment, and the whole brigade under Sir John Moore's orders, we believe to be well deserved; and we recommend the author's account of the system pursued by that meritorious officer, as well indeed as the generality of the remarks now before us, to public attention.

The writer also suggests, with the view of 'diminishing very materially the horrible influence of the climate of the West Indies on our soldiery,' that the period of service there should be much shortened: confining it to three years of actual duty, and then returning the regiment to Europe. He thinks that this measure would not only diminish the actual danger, but, by animating the soldier with the hope of again beholding his native land, would check that despondency and abandonment to his fate which at present tend greatly to assist the ravages of disease. The mortality of our troops in those colonies is indeed a *horrible* reflection; and the subject demands the most serious consideration. G.2.

Art. 30. *Suggestions for the Improvement of the Military Force of the British Empire.* By the Hon. Brigadier-General Stewart, M. P. 8vo. 2s. Egerton.

This pamphlet contains a more distinct and expanded view of those ideas on military matters, which General S. has lately expressed in the House of Commons. It presents the outlines of two very extensive plans of reform in the organization of our military force, and proceeds to details in each, an analysis or report of which would carry us beyond our usual boundaries. In the first plan, Gen. S. proposes to divide our forces into a *regular army*, of disposeable troops; and a *national army*, for service only within our home dominions, on different principles from those that regulate the present *militia*, which he would entirely disband. In the second plan, he institutes, first, a *Regular Army*, as before; 2dly, a *Reserve Army*, formed chiefly on the principle of the *Defence Bill* of the last year; and 3dly, a *Militia*, differently constituted from that which now exists.

In many of his observations, as in the system of recruiting, on the dreadful consequences of our West India duty, &c. General S. remarkably coincides with the author of the preceding tract, *Important Hints*, &c.; and we conceive that both writers manifest proofs of reflection and discernment which intitle them to notice and regard. The General agrees also with Sir Robert Wilson in his statements respecting *Courts Martial*, and offers some judicious ideas for the amendment of that branch of military law. G.2.

POETRY.

Art. 31. *The Melviad;* or the Birth, Parentage, Education, and Achievements of a Grete Mon. Addressed to the Commissioners, &c. &c. &c. By I-Spy-I. 4to. 2s. 6d. Robertson and Co.

A lame imitator of Peter Pindar has here borrowed his manner, but could not steal his soul. By such a satire, the affliction of Lord M. cannot be augmented; for we find in it little more wit than the motto in the title presents,

'Alack! Alack! poor Harry D—!
Is this the end of "*Wha wants me?*" Moy.

POLITICS.

Art. 32. *Considerations upon the Necessity of discussing the State of the Irish Catholics, in the* ensuing *Session of Parliament* *. By James Mason, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Could Mr. Mason suppose that the legislature would refuse to discuss the state of the Irish Catholics? If he had any doubts at the time in which his pamphlet was written, they are now fully removed. It is confessed that the present reign has been distinguished by concession and mercy to the Catholics of Ireland: but disabilities remain, which, though immediately affecting only the superior classes of society, rankle in the minds of all, as the remnants of an illiberal and oppressive system. Whatever disloyalty may appear in Ireland, Mr. M. attributes it solely to persecution; and he would therefore restore to the Catholics the full enjoyment of civil privileges, build them churches, and give salaries to their clergy. At all events, the discussion of the subject is recommended; which, he thinks, though for the present it should end in the refusal of Ca-

* This pamphlet appeared before the late debates on this question.

tholic

tholic Emancipation, will prepare the way for it when it can be obtained. Mr. M. speaks in high terms of the Irish character. May.

Art. 33. *Letter to the Noblemen and Gentlemen who compose the Deputation from the Catholics of Ireland, on the Subject of their Mission.* From the Hon. Henry Augustus Dillon, Member for the County of Mayo. 8vo. 2s. Budd. *June* 1805.

The date of this pamphlet seems to have been given in order to shew, that it is not to be classed with those which were occasioned by the late application of the Irish Catholics to the legislature, but that it has been composed subsequently to the recent discussions of their claims in parliament. Mr. Dillon congratulates the gentlemen, to whom his letter is addressed, on the turn which the debate took, and on the *majority of argument* displayed by the *minority in numbers*, whence a well grounded hope of ultimate success may be cherished. Zealous for the prosperity of Ireland, and persuaded that an equal participation of civil rights is the most effectual means of advancing it, he urges on the government a full consideration of this subject. The objections against Emancipation, as being incompatible with the Bill of Rights and the Coronation Oath, are scouted as chimeras; and the principles of the revolution are maintained to be the true principles of the constitution. No whig can be more strenuous than is Mr. D. on this occasion. His disapprobation of the union is strongly expressed, and he represents it as bearing peculiarly hard on the peers of Ireland. We are told, in direct terms, that Ireland cannot flourish as a protestant colony; that we must, in order to tranquillize it, win the affections of the majority of the people; and that it is unreasonable to expect that the Catholics will fight for 'a religion of disability, and a constitution of exclusion.' If a member of the reformed religion can thus write, the Catholics need not "bate one jot of heart or hope." Mr. D. is convinced that justice to the Catholics is the sure way of establishing the interest of the Protestant Church, and of advancing the work of proselytism. Do

Art. 34. *Strictures on the Tenth Report of the Commissioners of Naval Inquiry.* By Allan Macleod, Esq. To which are subjoined, an Appendix, containing the Substance of that Report, and Lord Melville's Letter to the Commissioners, &c. 8vo. pp. 96. 2s. 6d. Ginger. 1805.

Art. 35. *Reflections on the Proceedings of the House of Commons*, on the Nights of the 8th and 10th of April, 1805, embracing a View of the Conduct of Mr. Whitbread and the Whig Opposition on those memorable Nights: to which is annexed a Copy of the Act for regulating the Office of Treasurer of the Navy. By Allan Macleod, Esq. 8vo. pp. 94. 2s. 6d. Ginger.

It has been observed that the most virulent of the Jacobins in France have become the most servile and abject tools of its present ruler. In the case of the writer before us, we have an instance of one of the most daring and devoted members of the same sect in England undergoing a similar transmutation; and rarely, we believe, has the press been prostituted to usher any thing to light so nauseous, virulent, and ignorant, as the *tirades* now before us. We here see the

jacobin turned loyalist *enragé:* but he has only changed sides; the qualities of the individual, and the characteristics of the faction, remain the same; and the prototypes of these effusions are to be found in the speeches and dispatches of Fouche, Collot, Lebon, and Carrier, the late gods of this *ci devant* citizen's idolatry. He might have called these notable performances his *discoveries;* for, little as the titles promise of that nature, the reader will find that the pages are occupied solely by discoveries. From these he will learn that the commission for naval inquiry originated in motives the most base and disingenuous; that the conduct of the commissioners has been most unworthy and disgraceful; that a spirit of delusion has seized the people from one end of the kingdom to the other; and that this spirit has been conjured up by the Whigs, who are and always have been the authors of mischief, and the enemies, in every period, of the glory and prosperity of their country: while Mr. Wilberforce and his friends are represented as stunned by the clamour raised by the Whigs, deserted for the time by their reason, and becoming parties to injustice the most crying that was ever witnessed. It is thus that our late public proceedings are explained by the reclaimed martyr of jacobinism. He not only contends for the innocence of the acts of Lord Melville, but boldly maintains that merit is due to him on account of them. He denies that they amounted to a breach of the act, and dares all the world to dispute the point with him. No man, he tells us, *will venture* to say that his lordship violated the statute!—Surely the noble lord can have had no privity with an advocate of this description;—we must acquit him of so foul an imputation:—then who is at the expence of printing this miserable trash?

Lord Melville is in the hands of the law; and here, we are certain, complete justice will be equally administered between him and the nation, as far as it is within the competence of the tribunal to which the grave and solemn charge is to be submitted. Feeling all due respect for the Commons of England, and rejoicing in the firmness lately shewn by them in maintaining the honor of the laws, we own that we share in the surprise which the recent determination of their chamber has very generally excited. The Commons, in their late measures, acted as guardians of the public purse; then why surrender to another branch of the legislature, the prosecution of a delinquency which affected this their primary and proudest trust? Why assign the business to a prosecutor in whose private judgment the accused is without guilt? Why submit it to a jurisdiction, under which it may be doubted whether the offence, in some of its very essential parts, can fall? The rank of the offender, the august character of the accusing party, (the commons of the empire,) and the nature of the offence, seem to render not merely *more* but *solely* eligible, that form of trial which was negatived. It is ungenerous, as it strikes us, to impute to the informalities into which the accusers are said (without good grounds, in our judgment,) to have fallen, the rejection of the more solemn mode of proceeding. This charge is certainly preferred with a very ill grace by those who strained every nerve to obstruct the designs, and to defeat the objects, of those public-spirited individuals who so zealously stood up in vindication of the violated laws of their country. The accusers,

accusers, as far as we are able to collect, have acted with a firmness, a dignity, and a temperance, which reflect on them the highest honor. The effect of the proceedings which they have instituted has been to inspire good men with confidence, to endear parliament to the public, to add incalculably to the force and sacredness of the laws, and to excite and animate public spirit. Their own consciousness, and the acknowlegments of all virtuous men, will form their reward. The defamation of such a writer as Mr. Macleod only adds to the enviableness of their situation; while his countenance and support form not one of the least humiliating circumstances, affecting the individual who is ordered to answer for his conduct at the bar of justice.—We pass over the obloquy that is here thrown on the whole body of Whigs; it must come from a quarter more respectable in order to induce notice from us.

While this sheet is in the press, we learn that the Commons have rescinded their vote for a *Criminal Prosecution*, and have reverted to the mode of *Impeachment*. Jo.

Art. 36. *Report at large of the Debate on a Motion made by S. Whitbread, Esq. for the Impeachment of Henry Lord Viscount Melville*, June 11, 1805, for the Offences stated in the Tenth Report of the Commissioners of Naval Inquiry. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Symonds.

Art. 37. *The Substance of the Speech of Lord Viscount Melville in the House of Commons, on the 11th June* 1805, compiled on a Comparison of a Variety of Notes taken by different Persons, and believed on the whole not to be materially defective in point of correctness. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

Though this debate and the speech of Lord Melville have been detailed in the newspapers, the interesting nature of the subject justifies the trouble here taken to give them with particular correctness; especially the defence of the nobleman, against whom the motion for impeachment was brought forwards. On the peculiar degree of accuracy belonging to the last of these publications, we are unable to pronounce: but, with respect to the 10,000l. allowed to be advanced for purposes not naval, and of which Lord Melville refused to give any account, his words are here somewhat different from those in the speech given in the debate at large; and this sentence is added, which does not occur in the first of these publications: 'It is unnecessary to dwell upon the uneasiness I have felt from the necessity of withholding explanation *on any part* of this subject, aware as I am of the many insidious and malignant observations to which any person must be exposed, who feels such reserve to be his only honorable line of conduct.'

The passages, also, to which the reader is especially desired to attend, are printed in *Italics*. Ma-y.

Art. 38. *Speech of the Right Honorable Lord Hawkesbury*, in the House of Lords, on the 10th of May 1805, on the Subject of the Catholic Petition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Lord Hawkesbury's speech was made in reply to Lord Grenville, who moved that the prayer of the petition be taken into consideration. As it has been given in the public prints, we need not state its contents. Do.

EAST INDIAN AFFAIRS.

Art. 39. *Brief Remarks on the Mahratta War,* and on the Rise and Progress of the French Establishment in Hindostan, under Generals de Boigne and Perron. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

This tract professes to give a view of the circumstances which led to the late war with the Mahrattas; and it is a view which much coincides with the representations of Lord Wellesley, as stated in our Number for April last, page 397. The Mahratta power, the author tells us, arose during the distractions of the Mogul empire; and its original compact was predatory. The constitution is that of feudatory chiefs, the head of whom is called the Peshwa, and who exercises, according to his character or circumstances, more or less authority. At the beginning of the late contest, the power of the Peshwa had been so reduced that it was little more than nominal; and he was thus tempted to enter into a treaty with the English, which guaranteed to him his paramount dignities and rights, without trenching on the privileges, or circumscribing the possessions, of any of the feudal chieftains.

The inducements to this treaty, on the part of the English, are also here stated in the same manner as by the Governor General, in the tract above quoted; viz. the influence and power of the French in the territories of Scindia. The use which the French are said to have made of the peace of Amiens was to recruit the army of Mons. Perron in those territories through Pondicherry; and accordingly, we are told, a very large force was conveyed into that settlement, which failed of joining Perron solely through the vigilance of the Marquis Wellesley. Mons. Perron, at the time of this expected reinforcement, was lord paramount of 52 of the finest districts in India, at the head of 24,000 disciplined troops, and able to bring into the field 130 pieces of cannon. An alliance with the legal sovereign of the Mahratta empire was the only method of preventing an European influence hostile to the English power; since it shut against the French most of the western ports of India, and rendered the passage into Hindostan extremely difficult. It is here said that we were bound in duty, as well as by policy, in consequence of former treaties, to protect the Peshwa against the rebellion of a feudatory subject; and it was this treaty, concluded at Bassein, which excited the Mahratta chiefs to hostilities against the English. If the treaty was a fair one, the Mahrattas are clearly the aggressors; and the English cannot be regarded as such, unless the treaty itself be an hostile act against the same chiefs: in which light, we own, we do not see how it can possibly be considered. The correspondence with the Mahratta chiefs, respecting this treaty, was conducted on the side of the government of India by Col. Collins; and it is said to have been, on the part of the Mahrattas, the most extraordinary mixture of knavish duplicity and arrogant presumption, that even the crooked policy of Asiatic courts has ever displayed.

The author of this pamphlet appears to be master of his subject, and ably defends the cause which he espouses. Jo.

MATHE,

MATHEMATICS.

Art. 40. *A Course of Mathematics*, designed for the Use of the Officers and Cadets of the Royal Military College. By Isaac Dalby, Professor of Mathematics in the said College. Vol I. Large 8vo. pp. 500. 14s. Boards. Printed for the Author.

We readily admit that this is a very useful treatise, abounding in appropriate examples. It contains also the demonstration of the several propositions in Geometry, Trigonometry, &c. on which are founded rules for the solution of questions occurring in those sciences. As the author very modestly claims no merit for the promulgation of new principles, but considers his book in the light of an abridgment, or compilation, we ought not, and intend not, to be very nice and scrupulous: but we think that some things might have been more concisely stated, without any loss of perspicuity. The proof, that sines of angles vary as sides opposite, considering the simplicity of the proposition, is operose and difficult. The fourth case ought to have been performed differently, since, in Mensuration, the author demonstrates the expression for the area of a triangle in terms of the sides; and from such expression, the sines of the angles might be immediately expressed in terms of the sides. This fourth case is, the three sides being given, to find the angles: now if a, b, c, be the sides, and $a+b+c=2P$, the author proves that the

$$\text{Area} = \surd\left\{P.\ (P-a)\ (P-b)\ (P-c)\right\}$$

now the area $= \frac{\text{perp}^{r} \times \text{side}}{2} = \frac{b.\ \sin.\ A \times c}{2}$ (supposing A the angle opposite to the side a)

$$\text{hence sin. } A. = \frac{\surd\left\{P.\ (P-a)\ (P-b)\ (P-c)\right\}}{2-bc}$$

$$\text{and similarly sin. } B = \surd\left\{\frac{P.\ (P-a)\ (P-b)\ (P-c)}{2\ ac}\right\} \text{ &c.}$$

This is not the direct way of finding the sines; they ought to be found first, and then, from their expression, the area.—We have endeavoured to point out the connection of the two expressions, and to shew how the author might have avoided the insertion of two distinct and independent propositions.

In the Geometry, Professor D. says, as a definition, that the circular arc intercepted by two lines is the measure of the angle formed by these lines: but this ought not to be proposed as a definition, since it involves this proposition, viz. that, if the angle (A) be increased by $\frac{A}{m}$, the arc (a) will be increased by $\frac{a}{m}$; which, although it be true, wants proof, and has been proved by Euclid.—The author very judiciously gives the method of forming the Trigonometrical Canon.

On his mensuration of planes, solids, &c. on surveying, &c. we have no particular observations to make; as we have already said, each part abounds in examples, and in such as are appropriate. Mr. D. inquires, not what is the weight of a sphere of given diameter, &c. but

but asks, if the weight of a shot 6 inches in diameter, &c. or the diameter of a 9lb. shot being 4 inches, &c. ;—and similarly, his questions relate to the strength, clothing, and marching of battalions; to the mensuration of redoubts, or of the salient angles of bastions;—to the allowance for windage, &c.—We must not, however, close our remarks without observing that, in the typographical execution of the work, our eyes were not pleased with the mixture of small characters and blank spaces.

R.W.

ASTRONOMY.

Art. 41. *Evening Amusements*, or the Beauty of the Heavens displayed. In which several striking Appearances, observable on various Evenings in the Heavens, during the Year 1804, are described; and several Means within Doors are pointed out, by which the Time of young Persons may be innocently, agreeably, and profitably employed. Intended to be continued annually. By William Frend, Esq. M. A. and Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1803.

We have been very remiss in our notice of this performance: which, in justice to the author, and for the benefit of the public, we ought sooner to have recommended. The plan, which the title-page sufficiently sets forth, is extremely good; and the author, in acting on it, has with great success combined amusement with instruction, and has stated objects exactly and familiarly.

It is to be hoped that Mr. Frend has not relinquished his plan, but that he continues to instruct the star-gazers of 1805: but we have not seen advertized the *Evening Amusements* for the current year.

D.o

MEDICAL.

Art. 42. *A Practical Treatise on the superior Efficacy and Safety of Stizolobium, or Cowhage, (the Polichos Pruriens* of Linné,) internally administered in Diseases occasioned by Worms; &c. &c. By William Chamberlaine, &c. &c. The 9th Edition enlarged. 12mo. pp. 184. 3s. sewed. Highley.

The present edition of this useful publication contains a more ample description of intestinal worms, with their symptoms and causes, than was given in the former impressions. The author's high opinion of the efficacy of the Stizolobium, in the removal of worms, is confirmed by the testimonials of various respectable practitioners, and by several cases which came under his observation, or that of his correspondents, and which are inserted in his Book. He appears to be candid and judicious; and it is fair to him to add, that he prefers a selection from the very numerous cases which have been communicated to him, displaying the good effects derived from Cowhage within the last 20 years, to any thing like indiscriminate publication.

Yell.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 43. *Supplemental Volumes to the Works of Sir William Jones*, Containing the whole of the Asiatic Researches hitherto published, excepting those Papers already inserted in his Works. 2 Vols. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Robinsons, and Evans.

A pro-

A properly magnificent edition of the works of this great character was announced in our xxxiid Vol. N. S. p. 128.; and the present volumes ought long since to have been mentioned, as constituting the necessary addition to the former. They include not merely Sir William's own discourses and memoirs, but the whole contents of the *Asiatic Researches* up to the year 1801, on the principle that there is reason to suppose that many of the anonymous papers were derived from his pen; and because, moreover, as 'the greatest part of these papers were produced while he continued to preside, they, in a special manner, are appropriate to him.' G.2.

Art. 44. *Tables of the several European Exchanges*, from London to Amsterdam, Rotterdam, &c.; from Paris, Bourdeaux, &c. to London, Amsterdam, &c.; from Madrid, Cadiz, Lisbon, Oporto, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, Hamburgh, Venice, Petersburg, &c. &c. shewing by Inspection, the Value of any Sum of Money in all the principal Places of Europe, at the different Prices to which the Courses of Exchange may rise or fall; and describing in what Money, real or imaginary, Books and Accounts are usually kept, and Bills are drawn at each Place: with Tables equating the Monies of the Provinces of Spain; a Table of the Flemish Money; an Account of the Usances, &c. &c. By Robert Bewicke, of London, Merchant. 4to. 2 Vols. 4l. 4s. Boards. Richardsons.

Mr. Bewicke remarks in his preface that so long a time has elapsed since the appearance of any work of this nature, that all former publications have become of little service, on account of the great changes which have taken place in foreign commerce. He therefore trusts that the present Tables will be found of essential utility, as being formed on a more extensive plan than any hitherto offered to the public, and adapted to the present mode of operating in exchanges, in almost every place with which we have any connection. He speaks, moreover, with the greatest confidence, of their accuracy and precision; the greatest pains and attention having been bestowed on the revision of them.

There can be no doubt of the utility of such a publication to mercantile men: but mercantile men alone are competent to decide on its merits, from actual experience; and to them we must resign all criticism on these volumes. D.º

Art. 45. *A Short Account of some important Facts relating to the late Election of a Mathematical Professor in the University of Edinburgh*; accompanied with Original Papers and Critical Remarks. 2d Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

Why will the Clergy, who remind us that "Wisdom is justified of her children," often take such astonishing pains to convince the world that they are not Wisdom's favourite sons? We know that a stupid cry has been raised against Philosophy by some timid ecclesiastics: but we were not prepared to expect from any of the ministers of the Scotch church residing in Edinburgh, such ignorance and illiberality as their opposition to Mr. Leslie's appointment to the Mathematical chair has discovered. Could they have known how incom-

incompetent they were to the war which, for the sake of advancing the aspiring views of some of their order, and of casting a stigma on a learned and respectable Layman, they have provoked; - or could they have foreseen what artillery would be played off against them; we are persuaded that they would never have advanced to the contest. Professor Dugald Stewart, in the pamphlet before us, has most luminously explained the ground of the opposition of the Clergy of Edinburgh to Mr. Leslie's appointment to the vacant Mathematical chair, and the pretext of which they availed themselves to advance the views of their order. It is impossible not to admire the truly manly, ingenuous, and spirited conduct which the writer adopts on this occasion. He unites with Professor Playfair in exposing, with force of argument, the great impropriety of combining scientific professorships with ecclesiastical functions; and in course objecting to the appointment of the Rev. Mr. Macknight to the mathematical chair, unless he first agreed to resign his living; a measure to which his brethren were unwilling that he should accede, wishing perhaps to establish a practice by which the clergy of Edinburgh would obtain decided advantages.

The clergy, however, bethought themselves of a Note relative to Causation, in the *Essay on Heat*, which Mr. Leslie had lately published, and determined at all events to make it the ground-work of a charge of Atheism against him. The passage selected by these ecclesiastical critics is as follows:

"Mr. Hume is the first, as far as I know, who has treated of causation in a truly philosophic manner. His Essay on Necessary Connection seems a model of clear and accurate reasoning. But it was only wanted to dispel the cloud of mystery which had so long darkened that important subject. The unsophisticated sentiments of mankind are in perfect unison with the deductions of logic, and imply nothing more at bottom, in the relation of cause and effect, than a *constant and invariable sequence.*"

No sooner had Mr. Leslie heard of the charge of Atheism adduced against him in consequence of this note, than he wrote a letter to the Rev. Dr. Hunter, for the purpose of its being read to the Presbytery of Edinburgh, in which he both disclaims the principles objected to him, and protests against the mode of deducing them from the above-mentioned premises.

Professor Stewart deeply felt the importance of the subject to the University of which he is a most respectable member, to Philosophy, and even to Religion. He therefore boldly steps forwards to rescue the accused note from the severity of ecclesiastical censure, by shewing that the terms in which Mr. Leslie has expressed himself coincide with those which the most profound and pious philosophers have employed on the same subject; and that nothing could be more completely unfounded than the assertion of the Ministers of Edinburgh, "that Mr. Leslie having along with Mr. Hume DENIED ALL SUCH NECESSARY CONNECTION BETWEEN CAUSE AND EFFECT, AS IMPLIES AN OPERATING PRINCIPLE IN THE CAUSE, has, of course, laid a foundation for rejecting all the argument that is derived from the works of God, to prove either his being or attributes." Indeed,

if

If this inference be just, 'it not only involves the complete ruin,' as the author observes, 'of Mr. Leslie's character and hopes, but it rests the whole evidences of religion, both natural and revealed, on the *falseness* of a proposition, which has been unfortunately sanctioned by the authority of all those writers who have been hitherto regarded as the most able and successful defenders of our faith.'

Mr. S. apologizes for his warmth, but, we think, without occasion. His zeal for Mr. Leslie, whose literary merits he justly appreciates, is supported on public grounds; and no one can peruse the present pamphlet without acknowledging his magnanimity.

'*After* (says he) the discussions which took place in the Presbytery of Edinburgh,—in the presence of an indiscriminate multitude—in the presence of numbers of our own students, I acknowledge that I was glad of the proceeding. Interests of a higher nature than those of any individual were now at stake. Insult after insult had been offered to the University; and the opinions of our Academical Youth, concerning the foundations of those essential principles which it is my professional duty to illustrate, and which it has been the great object of my life to defend, were in no small danger of being unsettled by the crude and contradictory notions which were every where afloat. On the one hand, I saw a doctrine, which had been sanctioned by the highest names in Theology and in Philosophy, and which I myself for more than twenty years had laboured to establish, from the firmest conviction of its importance, not merely to the progress of physical science, but to the best and highest interests of mankind;—*this* doctrine I saw menaced with the anathemas of a powerful party in the Church; while, on the other hand, Persecution was preparing, as of old, to display her banners, in defence of an inconsistent jargon of metaphysical words, which waged war with the human understanding. In such circumstances, no alternative was left, but, by meeting the enemy openly in the field, to fall or to conquer. I trembled to think, that there was still a possibility that an escape might have been attempted in the Synod. Happily that danger is now over, and the whole merits of the case must, before the end of the ensuing week, be exposed to the light of day in the General Assembly. It is impossible to doubt, that the subject will there meet with all the attention which its importance demands. An injury of no common magnitude has been offered to the interests of our religion, to the credit of the Church of Scotland, and to the literary honours which have long adorned it; and it is in the wisdom and firmness of its Supreme Court alone that a prompt and effectual remedy can be found.'

Mr. Leslie's character has risen by the means which were employed to depress it; and his enemies, ashamed of their impotent and self-humiliating opposition, have been compelled to "hide their diminished heads."

Moy.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 46. *The Divine Visitations;* considered in a Sermon preached on the Fast-Day, Feb. 20, 1805. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

We do not perceive the reason which induced this author to withhold his name; for his sermon is serious, patriotic, and orthodox, though it possesses no very striking feature. He expresses his full conviction of the necessity of the present war, to prevent our subjugation;

jugation; devoutly prays that it may be sanctified to the nation; and exhorts to repentance, with calling on the name of Jesus Jehovah for salvation. The deluge of novels, luxury, infidelity, and religious indifference, is specified as indicative of much national vice which threatens to expose us to divine visitations: but, to abate the alarm which may be excited by this representation, he augurs favourably for us on account of the supplications of many thousands of real Christians dispersed throughout the empire. Thus the fate of the country seems to be suspended between the wickedness of the many, and the piety of a few. Mo.y.

Art. 47. *Preached in the Parish Church of Leeds*, on June 13, 1804, at the Visitation of the Right Worshipful Robert Markham, A. M. Archdeacon of York. By John Sheepshanks, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Faulder.

In this *concio ad clerum*, the preacher reminds his brethren of the duty of evincing apostolical humility and zeal in their sacred office. The clergyman is told that, justly to comprehend and devoutly to utter the Liturgy is to preach the whole Gospel; and therefore that he ought not to hurry over the reading of prayers in the desk, in order to get into the pulpit, where he might possibly only preach himself. In preparing his discourses, 'the keeper of Christ's flock' is recommended to select his subjects from the lessons of the day, to discern the signs of the times, and not to speculate on points undetermined in the Scriptures. Mr. S. concludes with urging the duty of living in peace and charity with sectaries. D.o

CORRESPONDENCE.

To the laborious communication of A. B. we are not able to reply at similar length: but we are obliged to him for reminding us of the severities with which Morgan, the famous Buccanier, was visited, late in life, by the Ministers of Charles II.; we mean his long imprisonment, and the consequences with which it was attended: circumstances which had at the moment escaped our recollection, at the time of perusing M. d'Archenholtz's History of the Buccaniers, to which A. B. refers *. We are aware that the adventures of this extraordinary man are involved in controversies which it lies not within our province minutely to sift: but if A. B., who seems to have bestowed much pains on the subject, will undertake the task, he may depend on having his efforts fairly appreciated by us. If he will again advert to the extracts to which he alludes at the close of his communication, he will find that they are produced as specimens of the descriptive powers of the writer, and not as relations to the authenticity of which we gave our sanction.—His papers are left at Mr. Becket's. Jo.

We shall comply with Mr. Taylor's request at our earliest opportunity.

N. B. In the Appendix to Vol. XLVI. (which was published with the last Review,) p. 493. l. 12. from bottom, for 'asthentic,' read *asthenic*.

In the Number for May, p. 12. l. 17. from bottom, after 'was,' dele '*therefore*.'

* See Appendix to Vol. XLV. p. 459.

Errors, pp. 163, 186, 203, 210, 215, 222, 223. 197,